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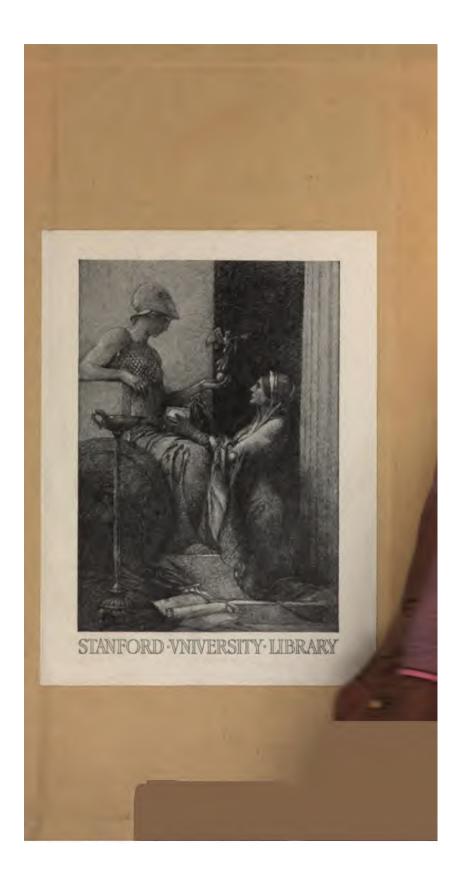
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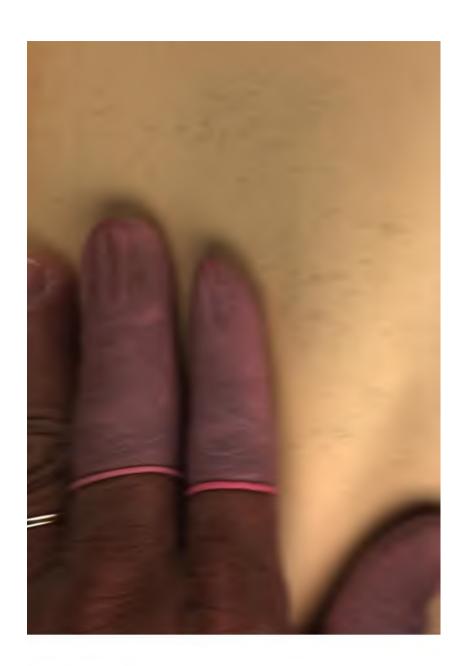
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HERMES

OR

A PHILOSOPHICAL INQVIRY

CONCERNING

VNIVERSAL GRAMMAR

BY

IAMES HARRIS ESQ.

EIZIENAI GAPPOYNTAZ EINAI FAP KAI ENTATGA GEOTZ.

THE SIXTH EDITION.

LONDON:

PRINTED FOR F. WINGRAVE, IN THE STRAND, SUCCESSOR TO MR. NOURSE.

M.DCCC.VI.



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Wright, Printer, St. Jonn's Square, Clerkenweil

PHILIP Lord HARDWICKE,

Lord High Chancellor of Great-]

Britain.*

My Lord,

AS no one has exercised the Powers of Speech with juster and more universal applause, than yourself; I have presumed to inscribe the following Treatise to your Lordship, its End being to investigate the Principles of those Powers. It has a farther claim to your Lordship's Patronage, by being connected in some degree with that politer Literature, which, in the most important scenes of Business, you

A 2 have

^{*} The above Dedication is printed as it originally stood, the Author being desirous that what he intended as a real Respect to the noble Lord, when living, should now be considered, as a Testimeny of Gratitude to his Memory.

have still found time to cultivate. With regard to myself, if what I have written be the fruits of that Security and Leisure, obtained by living under a mild and free Government; to whom for this am I more indebted, than to your Lordship, whether I consider you as a Legislator, or as a Magistrate, the first both in dignity and reputation? Permit me therefore thus publicly to assure your Lordship, that with the greatest gratitude and respect I am, My Lord,

Your Lordship's most obliged,

and most obedient humble Servant,

Close of Salisbury, Oct. 1, 1751.

James Harrin.

PREFACE.

THE chief End proposed by the Author of this Treatise in making it public, has been to excite his Readers to curiosity and inquiry; not to teach them himself by prolix and formal Lectures, (from the efficacy of which he has little expectation) but to induce them, if possible, to become Teachers to themselves, by an impartial use of their own understandings. He thinks nothing more absurd than the common notion of Instruction, as if Science were to be poured into the Mind, like water into a cistern, that passively waits to receive all that comes. growth of Knowledge he rather thinks to resemble the growth of Fruit; however external causes may in some degree cooperate, it is the internal vigour, and vir-

A3

tue

tue of the tree, that must ripen the juices to their just maturity.

This then, namely, the exciting men to inquire for themselves into subjects worthy of their contemplation, this the Author declares to have been his first and principal motive for appearing in print. 'Next to that, as he has always been a lover of Letters, he would willingly approve his studies to the liberal and ingenuous. He has particularly named these, in distinction to others; because, as his studies were never prosecuted with the least regard to lucre, so they are no way calculated for any lucrative End. The liberal therefore and ingenuous (whom he has mentioned already) are those, to whose perusal he offers what he has writ-Should they judge favourably of his attempt, he may not perhaps hesitate to confess,

Hoc juvat et melli est.—

For

For the hopes he cannot be charged with the foolish love of vain Praise, he has no desire to be thought indifferent, or insensible to honest Fame.

From the influence of these sentiments, he has endeavoured to treat his subject with as much order, correctness, and perspicuity as in his power; and if he has failed, he can safely say (according to the vulgar phrase) that the failure has been his misfortune, and not his fault. He scorns those trite and contemptible methods of anticipating pardon for a bad performance, that "it was the hasty " fruits of a few idle hours; written " merely for private amusement; never "revised; published against consent, at "the importunity of friends, copies " (God knows how) having by stealth " gotten abroad;" with other stale jargon of equal falsehood and inanity. May we not ask such Prefacers, If what they allege be true, what has the A 4' world

world to do with them and their crudities.

As to the book itself, it can say this in its behalf, that it does not merely confine itself to what its title promises, but expatiates freely into whatever is collateral; aiming on every occasion to rise in its inquiries, and to pass, as far as possible, from small matters to the greatest. Nor is it formed merely upon sentiments that are now in fashion, or supported only by such authorities as are modern. Many Authors are quoted, that now-a-days are but little studied; and some perhaps, whose very names are hardly known.

The Fate indeed of ancient Authors (as we have happened to mention them) is not unworthy of our notice. I few of them survive in the Libraries of the learned, where some venerable Folio, that still goes by their name, just suffices to give them a kind of nominal existence.

The rest have long fallen into a deeper obscurity, their very names when mentioned, affecting us as little, as the names, when we read them, of those subordinate Heroes,

Alcandrumque, Haliumque, Noemonaque, Prytanimque.

Now if an Author, not content with the more eminent of antient Writers, should venture to bring his reader into such company as these last, among people (in the fashionable phrase) that nobody knows; what usage, what quarter can he have reason to expect? Should the Author of these speculations have done this (and it is to be feared he has) what method had he best take in a circumstance so critical?—Let us suppose him to apologize in the best manner he can, and in consequence of this, to suggest as follows—

The Author of this Treatise would by no means detract from the just honoured due to those of his Countrymen, who either in the present, or preceding age have so illustriously adorned it. But the hecan with pleasure and sincerity join in celebrating their deserts, he would not have the admiration of these, or of any other few, to pass thre' blind excess into a contempt of all others. Were such Admiration to become universal, an odd event would follow; a few learned men, without any fault of their own, would contribute in a manner to the extinction of Letters.

A like cvil to that of admiring only the authors of our own age, is that of admiring only the authors of one particular Science. There is indeed in this last prejudice something peculiarly unfortunate, and that is, the more excellent the Science, the more likely it will be found to produce this effect.

There

There are few Sciences more intrinsically valuable, than MATHEMATICS. It is hard indeed to say; to which they have more contributed, whether to the Utilities of Life, or to the sublimest parts of Science. They are the noblest Praxis of Logic, or Universal Reasoning. It is thro' them we may perceive, how the stated Forms of Syllogism are exemplified in one Subject, namely the Predicament of Quantity. By marking the force of these Forms, as they are applied here, we may be enabled to apply them of ourselves elsewhere. Nay farther still-by viewing the MIND, during its process in these syllogistic employments, we may come to know in part, what kind of Being it is; since MIND, like other Powers, can be only known from its Operations. Whoever therefore will study Mathematics in this view, will become not only by Mathematics a more expert Logician, and by Logic a more rational Mathematician, but a wiser a wiser Philosopher, and an acuter Reasoner, in all the possible subjects either of science or deliberation.

But when Mathematics, instead of being applied to this excellent purpose, are used not to exemplify Logic, but to supply its place; no wonder if Logic pass into contempt, and if Mathematics, instead of furthering science, become in fact an obstacle. For when men, knowing nothing of that Reasoning which is universal, come to attach themselves for years to a single Species, a species wholly involved in Lines and Numbers only; they grow insensibly to believe these last as inseparable from all Reasoning, as the poor Indians thought every horseman to be inseparable from his korse.

And thus we see the use, nay the necessity of enlarging our literary views, lest even Knowledge itself should obstruct

its own growth, and perform in some measure the part of ignorance and barbarity.

Such then is the Apology made by the Author of this Treatise, for the multiplicity of antient quotations, with which he has filled his Book. If he can excite in his readers a proper spirit of curiosity; if he can help in the least degree to enlarge the bounds of Science; to revive the decaying taste of antient Literature; to lessen the bigotted contempt of every thing not modern; and to assert to Authors of every age their just portion of esteem; if he can in the least degree contribute to these ends, he hopes it may be ullowed, that he has done a service to mankind. Should this service be a reason for his Work to survive, he has confest already, it would be no unpleasing event. Should the contrary happen, he must acquiesce in its fate, and let it peaceably pass to those destined regions, whi-

PREFACE

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ther the productions of modern Wit are every day passing,

in vicum vendentem thus et odores.

ADVERTISEMENT.

The Reader is desired to take notice, that as often as the author quotes V. I. p. &c. he refers to Three Treatises published first in one Volume, Octavo, in the year 1744.

THE.

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HERMES

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OR

A PHILOSOPHICAL ENQUIRY

CONCERNING

UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR.

BOOK I.

CHAP. I.

INTRODUCTION.

Design of the Whole.

for Solitude, they had never felt an Impulse to converse one with another: And if, like lower Animals, they had been by nature irrational, they could not have recognized the proper Subjects of Discourse. Since Speech then is the joint Energie of our best and noblest Faculties, (a) (that is to say, of our Rea-

⁽a) See V. I. p. 147 to 169. See also Note xv. p. 292, and Note xix. p. 296, of the same Volume.

HERMËS.

son and our social Affection) being withal our peculiar Ornament and Distinction, as Men; those Inquiries may surely be deemed interesting as well as liberal, which either search how Speech may be naturally resolved; or how, when resolved, it may be again combined.

HERE a large field for speculating opens before us. We may either behold Speech, as divided into its constituent Parts, as a Statue may be divided into its several Limbs; or else, as resolved into its Matter and Form, as the same Statue may be resolved into its Marble and Figure.

THESE different Analysings or Resolutions constitute what we call^(b) Philosophical, or Universal Grammar.

WHEN

⁽b) Grammaticam ettam bipartitum ponemus, ut alia sit literaria, alia philosophica, &c. Bacon, de Augm. Scient. VI. 1. And soon after he adds—Verumtamen hác ipså re moniti, cogitatione complexi sumus Grammaticam quandam, que non unulogiam verborum ad înticem, sed analogiam inter verba et res sive rationem seduio inquirat.

WHEN we have viewed Speech thus Ch. I. analysed, we may then consider it, as compounded. And here in the first place we may contemplate that (c) Synthesis, which by combining simple Terms produces a Truth; then by combining two Truths produces a third; and thus others, and others, in continued Demonstration, till we are led, as by a road, into the regions of Science.

Now this is that superior and most excellent Synthesis, which alone applies itself to our Intellect or Reason, and B 2 which

⁽c) Aristotle says—τῶν δὶ καὶὰ μηδιμίαν συμπλοκὴν λεγομένων ἐδὶν ἔτι ἀληθὶς ἔτι ψευδίς ἰςιν οἶον ἄνθεωπῶν, λεῦκῶν, τεἰκον, ναὰ—Of those words which are spoken without connection, there is no one either true or false; as for instance, Man, white, runneth, conquereth. Cat. C. 4. So again in the beginning of his Treatise De Interpretatione, περί γὰρ σύνθισην κὰ διάιρισην ἔςι τὸ ψευδός τε κὰ τὸ ἀληθίς. True and False are seen in Composition and Division. Composition makes affirmative Truth, Division makes negative, yet both alike bring terms together, and so far therefore may be called synthetical.

HERMES.

Ch. I. which to conduct according to Rule, constitutes the Art of Logic.

After this we may turn to those inferior Compositions, which are productive of the Pathetic, and the

⁽d) Ammonius in his Comment on the Treatise Π_{s_k} ? $E_{punveias}$, p. 53, gives the following Extract from Theophrastus, which is here inserted at length, as well for the Excellence of the Matter, as because it is not (I believe) elsewhere extant.

Διτίπε γαι έσης τε λόγε σχέσεως, (καθ' α διώρισεν ο Φιλόσοφ@- Θιόφεας@-) της τε ΠΡΟΣ ΤΟΥΣ ΑΚΡΟΩΜΕΝΟΥΣ, οις κὸ σημαίνει τι, κὸ τῆς ΠΡΟΣ ΤΑ ΠΡΑΓΜΑΤΑ, ὑπὶς ὧν ό λίγων ωείσαι ωροτίθηται τθς άκροωμίνες, απερί μέν δυ την σχίσιν αὐθε την ΠΡΟΣ ΤΟΥΣ ΑΚΡΟΑΤΑΣ καθαγίνονθαι σοιηλική κ, βηλορική, διότι έργον άυλαῖς εκλέγεσθαι τὰ σεμνότεςα των ονομάτων, άλλα μη τα κοινά κ) δεδημευμένα, κ) ταυτα ἐναςμονίως συμπλέχειν ἀλλήλοις, ὥςε διὰ τύτων κỳ τῶν τύτοις έπομένων, οίον σαφηνείας, γλυκύτητ®, κ) των άλλων ίδεων, έτι τε μακεολογίας, κὶ βεαχυλογίας, καθά καιεδι σάντων σαεαλαμ-Cανομένων, οίσαι τε τον άκροατην, κὶ ἐκπληξαι, κὶ ωρος την τείθω χειςωθένλα έχειν' της δέ γε ΠΡΟΣ ΤΑ ΠΡΑΓΜΑΤΑ τε λόγε σχέσεως ό φιλόσοφ. Εφοηγεμένως επιμελήσείαι, τό, τε ψεύδ Φ διελέγχων, κ) τὸ άληθὶς άποδεκνύς. The Relation of Speech being twofold (as the Philosopher Theophrastus huth settled it) one to the HEARERS, to whom it explains

Pleasant in all their kinds. These latter Compositions aspire not to the Intellect, but being addressed to the Imagination, the Affections, and the Sense, become

Ch. I.

plains something, and one to the THINGS, concerning which the Speaker proposes to persuade his Hearers: With respect to the first Relation, that which regards the HEARERS, are employed Poetry and Rhetoric. Thus it becomes the business of these two, to select the most respectable Words, and not those that are common and of vulgar use, and to connect such Words harmoniously one with another, so as thro' these things and their consequences, such as Perspicuity, Delicacy, and the other Forms of Eloquence, together with Copiousness and Brevity, all employed in their proper season, to lead the Hearer, and strike him, and hold him vanquished by the power of Persuasion. On the contrary, as to the Relation of Speech to THINGS, here the Philosopher will be found to have a principal employ, as well in refuting the False, as in demonstrating the True.

Sanctius speaks elegantly on the same subject. Creavit Deus hominem rationis participem; cui, quia Sociabilem esse voluit, magno pro munere dedit Sermonem.—Sermoni autem perficiendo tres opifices adhibuit. Prima est Grammatica, que ab oratione solecismos & barbarismos expellit; secunda Dialectica, que in Sermonis veritate versatur; tertia Rhetorica, que ornatum Sermonis tantum erquirit. M. in. 1. 1. c. 2.

become from their different heightnings either RHETORIC or POETRY.

Nor need we necessarily view these Arts distinctly and apart; we may observe, if we please, how perfectly they co-incide. Grammar is equally requisite to every one of the rest. And though Logic may indeed subsist without Rhetoric or Poetry, yet so necessary to these last is a sound and correct Logic, that without it, they are no better than warbling Trifles.

Now all these Inquiries (as we have said already) and such others arising from them as are of still sublimer Contemplation, (of which in the Sequel there may be possibly not a few) may with justice be deemed Inquiries both interesting and liberal.

AT present we shall postpone the whole synthetical Part, (that is to say,

Logic

Logic and Rhetoric) and confine ourselves to the analytical, that is to say, UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR. In this we shall follow the Order, that we have above laid down, first dividing Speech, as a Whole, into its constituent Parts; then resolving it, as a Composite, into its Matter and Form; two Methods of Analysis very different in their kind, and which lead to a variety of very different Speculations.

Should any one object, that in the course of our Inquiry we sometimes descend to things, which appear trivial and low; let him look upon the effects, to which those things contribute, then from the Dignity of the Consequences, let him honour the Principles.

Shared areas not calling to rate

The following Story may not improperly be here inserted. "When the "Fame of Heraclitus was celebrated throughout Greece, there were cer-B4" tain

Ch. II. in Matters of Art and human Cre tion, if we except a few Artists and cr

1. 2. c. 2. It leads us, when properly regarded, to a ve important Distinction between Intelligence Divine Intelligence man. God may be said to view the Fin as first; and the Last, as last; that is, he views Effe through Causes in their natural Order. Man views: Last, as first; and the First, as last; that is, he vie Causes through Effects, in an inverse Order, and her the Meaning of that Passage in Aristotle: Zowe yar ran muxlepidan om mala moos ro pinno inn ro met minigan, κ) της ημετέρας ψυχης ο Νως προς τα τη φύσει Φανερώτ warlar. As are the Eyes of Bats to the Light of the D so is Man's Intelligence to those Objects, that are by I ture the brightest and most conspicuous of all things. A taph. l. 2. c. 1. See also l. 7. c. 4. and Ethic. Nia 1. 1. c. 4. Ammonius, reasoning in the same way, so very pertinently to the Subject of this Treatise-'Aye τον τη ανθρωμίνη φύσει, έκ των απελες φων κι συνθέτων επί άπλύς ερα κὶ τελειότερα προϊένει· τὰ γὰρ φύνθέτα μᾶλλον συν ήμιν, κζ΄ γνωριμώτερα. "Ουτω γθν κζ ὁ παίς είραι μέν λόγον, εισείν, Σωκράτης σερισαθεί, οίδε τύτον δε άναλύσαι είς όνομα βῆμα, κὴ ταῦτα εἰς συλλα G ὰς, κάκεῖνα εῖς τοιχεῖα, ἐκέτι * Iman Nature may be well contented to advance from more imperfect and complex to the more simple and p fect; for the complex Subjects are more familiar to and better known. Thus therefore it is that even a Cl knows how to put a Sentence together, and say, Socra walketh; but how to resolve this Sentence into a Ne

CHAP. II.

Concerning the Analysing of Speech into its smallest Parts.

Those things which are first to Na-Ch. II. ture, are not first to Man. Nature begins from Causes, and thence descends to Effects. Human Perceptions first open upon Effects, and thence by slow degrees ascend to Causes. Often had Mankind seen the Sun in Eclipse, before they knew its Cause to be the Moon's Interposition; much oftener had they seen those unceasing Revolutions of Summer and Winter, of Day and Night, before they knew the Cause to be the Earth's double Motion (a). Even

In

^(*) This Distinction of first to Man, and first to Nature, was greatly regarded in the Peripatetic Philosophy.—See Arist. Phys. Auscult. 1. 1. c. 1. Themistius's Comment on the same, Poster. Analyt. 1. 1. c. 2. De Anima, 1. 2. c. 2.

ch. II. shall follow the Order consonant to human Perception, as being for that reason the more easy to be understood.

We shall begin therefore first from a *Period* or *Sentence*, that combination in Speech, which is obvious to all; and thence pass, if possible, to those its *primary Parts*, which, however essential, are only obvious to a few.

WITH respect therefore to the different Species of Sentences, who is there so ignorant, as if we address him in his Mother-Tongue, not to know when 'tis we assert, and when we question; when 'tis we command, and when we pray or wish?

For example, when we read in Shake-speare*,

The Man that hath no music in himself, And is not moved with concord of sweet sounds,

Is fit for Treasons—

Or

^{*} Merchant of Venice.

Or in Milton*,

Ch. IL.

O Friends, I hear the tread of nimble feet,

Hasting this way.

'tis obvious that these are assertive Sentences, one founded upon Judgment, the other upon Sensation.

WHEN the Witch in *Macbeth* says to her Companions,

When shall we three meet again In thunder, lightning, and in rain? this 'tis evident is an interrogative Sentence.

WHEN Macbeth says to the Ghost of Banquo,

——Hence, horrible Shadow,
Unreal Mock'ry, hence!——
he speaks an imperative Sentence.

he speaks an imperative Sentence, founded upon the passion of hatred.

WHEN

Ch. H. WHEN Milton says in the character of his Allegro,

Haste thee, Nymph, and bring with thee Jest and youthful Jollity,

he too speaks an imperative Sentence, though founded on the passion, not of hatred but of love.

WHEN in the beginning of the Paradise Lost we read the following address,
And chiefly thou, O Spirit, that dost
prefer

Before all temples th' upright heart, and pure,

Instruct me, for thou know'st—
this is not to be called an imperative
Sentence, tho' perhaps it bear the same
Form, but rather (if I may use the Word)
'tis a Sentence precative or optative.

What then shall we say? Are Sentences to be quoted in this manner without ceasing, all differing from each other in their stamp and character? Are they no way reducible to certain definite Classes?

Classes? If not, they can be no objects of rational comprehension.—Let us however try.

Tis a phrase often applied to a man, when speaking, that he speaks his MIND; as much as to say, that his Speech or Discourse is a publishing of some Energie or Motion of his Soul. So it indeed is in every one that speaks, excepting alone the Dissembler or Hypocrite; and he too, as far as possible, affects the appearance.

Now the Powers of the soul (over and above the mere † nutritive) may be included all of them in those of Perception and those of Volition. By the Powers of Perception, I mean the Senses and the Intellect; by the Powers of Volition, I mean, in an extended sense, not only the Will, but the several Passions and Appetites; in short, all that moves

⁺ Vid. Aristot. de An. II. 4.

Ch. II. moves to Action, whether rational or irrational.

Ir then the leading Powers of the Soul be these two, 'tis plain that every Speech or Sentence, as far as it exhibits the Soul, must of course respect one or other of these.

IF we assert, then is it a Sentence which respects the Powers of PERCEPTION. For what indeed is to assert, if we consider the examples above alleged, but to publish some Perception either of the Senses or the Intellect?

AGAIN, if we interrogate, if we command, if we pray, or if we wish, (which in terms of Art is to speak Sentences interrogative, imperative, precative, or optative) what do we but publish so many different Volitions?—For who is it that questions? He that has a Desire to be informed.—Who is it that commands? He that has a Will, which he would have obeyed.

obeyed.—What are those Beings, who either wish or pray? Those, who feel certain wants either for themselves, or others.

If then the Soul's leading Powers be the two above mentioned, and it be true that all Speech is a publication of these Powers, it will follow that EVERY SENTENCE WILL BE EITHER A SENTENCE OF ASSERTION, OR A SENTENCE OF VOLITION. And thus, by referring all of them to one of these two classes, have we found an expedient to reduce their infinitude.

THE

⁽b) Ρημου δι ότι της ψυχης της ημετέρας διτλάς εχέσης δυνάμεις, τὰς μὲν ψυωςικὰς, τὰς δὲ ζωτικὰς, τὰς κὰ ὁρεκλικὰς λεγομέυπες (λέγω δὲ γνωςικὰς μὲν, καθ ἀς γινώσκομεν ἔκαςον τῶν ὅντων,
εἶον τῶν, διάνοιαν, δόξαν, φαντασίαν κὰ ἀισθησιν ὁρεκλικὰς δὲ, καθ
ἄς ἐρεγόμεθα τῶν ἀγαθῶν, ἢ τῶν ὅντων, ἢ τῶν δοκύντων, οἶον
βάληση λέγω, περαίρεσιν, θυμὸν, κὰ ἐπιθυμίαν) τὰ ΜΕΝ τίτλαρα
πῶν τῶ λόγω (τὰ παρὰ τὸν ἀποφαντικὸν) ἀπὸ τῶν ὀρεκλικῶν δυκάμετον περόφχονται τῆς ψυχῆς, ἀκ ἀυτῆς καθ ἀυτὴν ἐπερχύσης,

Ch. II. THE Extensions of Speech are quite indefinite, as may be seen if we compare

άλλα τρος έτερον αποτεινομένης (τον συμβάλλεσθαι δοκέντα προς τὸ τυχεῖν τῆς ὀρέξεως) κὶ ἦτοι λόγον ໝαρ αυθά ζητέσης, καθάπερ ἐπὶ τε ΠΥΣΜΑΤΙΚΟΥ κ, ΕΡΩΤΗΜΑΤΙΚΟΥ καλυμένυ λόγυ, જે જારુલેંગુમુલ, મે, .દો જારૂલેંગુમુલ, જેરદા લેગી દેશદાંગ્ક રાગ્સદાંગ દેણાદ્દમદંગ્નદ, જીરૂદેદ ον ο λόγ . ώσπερ επί τε ΚΛΗΤΙΚΟΥ, ή τινος ωαρ' αυίε ωράξεως κὶ τάυτης, ἡ ώς σαρὰ κρείτθου. ώς ἐπὶ τῆς ΕΥΧΗΣ, ἡ ώς τας α γείρου . ως επί τε χυρίως χαλυμένης ΠΡΟΣΤΑΒΕΩΣ μότοι ΔΕ τὸ ΑΠΟΦΑΝΤΙΚΟΝ ἀπὸ τῶν γιωςικῶν, κὰ ἔςι τῶτο έξαγ[ελτικόν της γενομένης εν ήμιν γνώσεως 🗫ν σεαγμάτων αληθώς, ή φαινομένως, διό κὸ μόνον τύτο δεκθικόν έςιν αληθείας ή ψεύδυς, τῶν δὶ ἄλλων ἐδίν. The Meaning of the above passage being implied in the Text, we take its translation from the Latin Interpreter. Dicendum igitur est, cum anima nostra duplicem potestatem habeat, cognitionis, & vitæ, quæ etiam appetitionis ac cupiditatis appellatur, quæ vero cognitionis est, vis est, quá res singulas cognoscimus. ut mėns, cogitutio, opinio, phantasia, sensus: appetitus vero facultas est, quá bona, vel quæ sunt, vel quæ videntur, concupiscimus, ut sunt voluntas, consilium, ira, cupiditas: quatuor orationis species, præter enunciantem, a partibus animi proficiscuntur, quæ concupiscunt; non cum animus ipse per se agit, sed cum ad alium se convertit, qui ei ad consequendum id, quod cupit, conducere posse videatur; atque etiam vel rationem ab eo exquirit, ut in oratione, quam Percunctantem aut Interrogantem vocant: vel rem : sique rem, vel cum ipsum consequi cupit, quícum loquitur,

pare the Æneid to an Epigram of Martial. But the longest Extension, with which Grammar has to do, is the Extension here considered, that is to say, a Sentence. The greater Extensions (such as Syllogisms, Paragraphs, Sections, and complete Works) belong not to Grammar, but to Arts of higher order; not to mention that all of them are but Sentences repeated.

Now a SENTENCE (c) may be sketched in the following description—a com pound

loquitur, ut in optante oratione, vel aliquam ejus actionem atque in hâc, vel ut a præstantiore, ut in Deprecatione; vel ut ab inferiore, ut in eo, qui proprie Jussus nominatur. Sola autem Enuncians a cognoscendi facultate proficiscitur: hæque nunciat rerum cognitionem, quæ in nobis est, aut veram, aut simulatam. Itaque Hæc sola verum falsumque capit: præterea vero nulla. Ammon. in Libr. de Interpretatione.

⁽c) Airo di pari ourseri onuarrini, is sua mien nas intra onuaire ti. Arist. Poet. c. 20. See also de Interpret. c. 4.

Ch. II. pound Quantity of Sound significant, of which certain Parts are themselves also significant.

THUS when I say [the Sun shineth] not only the whole quantity of sound has a meaning, but certain parts also, such as [Sun] and [shineth.]

But what shall we say? Have these Parts again other Parts, which are in like manner significant, and so may the progress be pursued to infinite? Can we suppose all Meaning, like Body, to be divisible, and to include within itself other meanings without end? If this be absurd, then must we necessarily admit, that there is such a thing as a Sound significant, of which no Part is of itself significant. And this is what we call the proper character of $a^{(d)}$ Word.

For

⁽d) Φωνη σημαντική,—ης μές δε έδεν ές καθ' ἀυτό σημαντικόν.

De Poetic. c. 20. De Interpret. c. 2 & 3. Priscian's

Definition of a Word (Lib. 2.) is as follows— Dictie est

pare

Ch. II.

For thus, though the Words [Sun] and [shineth] have each a Meaning, yet is there certainly no Meaning in any of their Parts, neither in the Syllables of the one, nor in the Letters of the other.

IF therefore ALL SPEECH, whether in prose or verse, every Whole, every Section, every Paragraph, every Sentence, imply a certain Meaning, divisible into other Meanings, but Words imply a Meaning, which is not so divisible: it follows that Words will be the smallest parts of Speech, in as much as nothing less has any Meaning at all.

To

pars minima orationis constructæ, id est, in ordine compositæ. Pars autem, quantum ad totum intelligendum, id est, ad totius sensus intellectum. Hoc autem ideo dictum est, ne quis conetur vires in duas partes dividere, hoc est, in vi & res; non enim ad totum intelligendum hæc fit divisio. To Priscian we may add Theodore Gaza.—Λίζις δὶ, μίς ιλάχιςον κατὰ σύνταξιν λὸγε. Introd. Gram. 1. 4. Pluto shewed them this characteristic of a Word—See Cratylus, p. 385. Edit. Serr.

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Ch. II. To know therefore the species of Words, must needs contribute to the knowledge of Speech, as it implies a knowledge of its minutest Parts.

This therefore must become our next Inquiry.

CHAP III.

Concerning the species of Words, the smallest Parts of Speech.

LET us first search for the Species of Ch. III. Words among those Parts of Speech, commonly received by Grammarians. For Example, in one of the passages above cited.—

The Man that hath no music in himself, And is not mov'd with concord of sweet sounds,

Is fit for treasons—

Here the Word [The] is an ARTICLE;—
[Man] [No] [Music] [Concord] [Sweet]
[Sounds] [Fit] [Treasons] are all NOUNS,
some Substantive, and some Adjective—
[That] and [Himself] are PRONOUNS—
[Hath] and [is] are VERBS—[mov'd] a
PARTICIPLE—[Not] an ADVERB—
[And] a CONJUNCTION—[In] [With]
C 4 and

Ch. III. and [For] are PREPOSITIONS. In a sentence we have all those Parts Speech, which the Greek Grammari are found to acknowledge, The La only differ in having no Article, and separating the Interjection, a Part of itself, which the Greeks inch among the Species of Adverbs.

WHAT then shall we determine? vare there not more Species of Work why so many? or if neither more fewer, why these and not others?

To resolve, if possible, these seven Queries, let us examine any Sente that comes in our way, and see we differences we can discover it its Pa For example, the same Sentence about the same sentence are sentence as the same sentence about the same sentence are sentence as the same sentence are sentence about the same sentence are sentence as the sam

The Man that hath no Music, &c.

ONE Difference soon occurs, t some Words are variable, and others variable. Thus the Word Man may varied into Man's and Men; Hath, Have, Hast, Had, &c. Sweet into Sweet-Ch. III. er and Sweetest; Fit into Fitter and Fittest. On the contrary, the Words The, In, And, and some others, remain as they are, and cannot be altered.

And yet it may be questioned, how far this Difference is essential. For in the first place, there are Variations, which can be hardly called necessary, because only some Languages have them, and others have them not. Thus the Greeks have the dual Variation. which is unknown both to the Moderns. and to the ancient Latins. Thus the Greeks and Latins vary their Adjectives by the triple Variation of Gender, Case, and Number; whereas the English never vary them in any of those ways, but through all kinds of Concord preserve them still the same. Nav even those very Variations, which appear most necessary, may have their places supplied by other methods; some by Auxiliars, as when for Bruti or Bruto,

Ch. III. we say, of Brutus, to Brutus; some by meer Position, as when for Brutum amavit Cassius, we say, Cassius lov'd Brutus. For here the Accusative, which in Latin is known any where from its Variation, is in English only known from its Position or place.

Ir then the Distinction of Variable and Invariable will not answer our purpose, let us look farther for some other more essential.

Suppose then we should dissolve the Sentence above cited, and view its several Parts as they stand separate and detached. Some 'tis plain still preserve a Meaning (such as Man, Music, Sweet, &c.) others on the contrary immediately lose it (such as, And, The, With, &c.) Not that these last have no meaning at all, but in fact they never have it, but when in company, or associated.

Now

Now it should seem that this Dis-Ch. III. tinction, if any, was essential. For all Words are significant, or else they would not be Words; and if every thing not absolute, is of course relative, then will all Words be significant either absolutely or relatively.

WITH respect therefore to this Distinction, the first sort of Words may be call'd significant by themselves; the latter may be call'd significant by relation; or if we like it better, the first sort may be call'd Principals, the latter Accessories. The first are like those stones in the basis of an Arch, which are able to support themselves, even when the Arch is destroyed; the latter are like those stones in its Summit or Curve, which can no longer stand, than while the whole subsists(e).

§ TH18

⁽c) Apollonius of Alexandria (one of the acutest Authors that ever wrote on the Subject of Grammar) illustrates the different power of Words, by the different power

h. III. § This Distinction being admitted, we thus pursue our Speculations. All things

power of Letters. "Eti, or trowor two sorgeion tà min isi Φωνήεντα, α κ, καθ' έαυτα Φωνήν αποτελεῖ τα δε σύμφωνα, απερ άνευ των Φωνηένων έκ έχει βητην την έκφώνησιν. τον αυτόν τρόπον है दोंग हैक πορησίας κώπε των λέξεων, αι μέν γας αυθών, τεόπον τινά των Φωνηέντων βηταί είσι καθάπες επί των βημάτων, δνομάτων. αντωνυμιών, επιβρημάτων - άι δε, ώσπερεί σύμφωνα, ακαμένεσι Tà Quenterra, & Sorapera nat' idiar furà elvas—nadante ent ror **Φ**εοθέσεων, τῶν ἄρθρων, τῶν συνδέσμων· τὰ γὰρ τοιαῦτα ἀεὶ τῶν mogram ovocommainer. In the same manner, as of the Elements or Letters, some are Vowels, which of themselves. complete a Sound; others are Consonants, which without the help of Vowels have no express Vocality; so likewise may we conceive as to the nature of Words. Some of them, like Vowels, are of themselves expressive, as is the case of Verbs, Nouns, Pronouns, and Adverbs; others, like Consonants, wait for their Vowels, being unable to become expressive by their own proper strength, as is the case of Prepositions, Articles, and Conjunctions; for these parts of Speeck are always Consignificant, that is, are only significant, when associated to something else. Apollon, de Syntaxi. L. 1. c. 3. Itaque quibusdam philosophis placuit nomen & verbum Solas esse partes Orationis: calera vero, Adminicula rel Juncturas earum: quomodo navium partes sunt tabulæ & trabes, cætera autem (id est, cera, stuppa, & clavi & similia) rincula & conglutinationes

things whatever either exist as the Ener- Ch. In. gies, or Affections, of some other thing, or without being the Energies or Affections of some other thing. If they exist as the Energies or Affections of something else, then are they called ATTRIBUTES.-Thus to think is the attribute of a Man: to be white, of a Swan; to fly, of an Eagle; to be four-footed, of a Horse.-If they exist not after this manner, then are they call'd Substances*. Thus Man, Swan, Eagle, and Horse, are none of them Attributes, but all Substances, because however they may exist in Time and Place, yet neither of these, nor of any thing else, do they exist as Energies or Affections.

And

tiones partium navis (hoc est, tabularum & trabium) non partes navis dicuntur. Prisc. L. XI. 913.

^{*} Substances.] Thus Aristotle. Non min &n τύπφ είςηται, τί ωστ' ἐς ἐν ἡ ἐσία, ὅτι τὸ μὴ καθ' ὑποκιμένε, ἀλλὰ καθ' ἐ τὰ ἄλλα. Metaph. Z. γ. p. 106. Ed. Sylb.

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AND thus all things whatsoever, being either (f) Substances or Attributes, it follows of course that all Words, which are significant as Principals, must needs be significant of either the one or the other. If they are significant of Substances, they are call'd Substantives; if of Attributes, they are call'd Attributives. So that ALL WORDS whatever, significant as Principals, are either Substantives.

AGAIN, as to Words, which are only significant as Accessories, they acquire a Signification either from being associated to one Word, or else to many. If to one Word alone, then as they can do no more than in some manner define or determine, they may justly for that rea-

son

⁽f) This division of things into Substance and Attribute seems to have been admitted by Philosophers of all Sects and ages. See Catagor. c. 2, Metaphys. L. VII. c. 1. De Calo, L. III. c. 1.

Ch. III. Definitives, ARTICLES; and the Connectives, CONJUNCTIONS.

Show'd it be ask'd, what then becomes of Pronouns, Adverbs, Prepositions, and Interjections; the answer is, either they must be found included within the Species above-mentioned, or else must be admitted for so many Species by themselves.

§ THERE were various opinions in ancient. Days, as to the *number* of these Parts or Elements of Speech.

Plate in his *Sophist mentions only two, the Noun and the Verb. Aristotle mentions no more, where he treats of †Prepositions. Not that those acute Philosophers were ignorant of the other Parts, but they spoke with reference to Logic

^{*} Tom. I. p. 261. Edit. Ser.

⁺ De Interpr. c. 2 & 3.

Logic or Dialectic(8), considering the Essence of Speech as contained in these two, because these alone combined make a perfect assertive Sentence, which none of the rest without them are able to effect. Hence therefore Aristotle in his *treatise of Poetry (where he was to lay down the elements of a more variegated

(g) Partes igitur orationis sunt secundum Dialecticos dua, Nomen & Verbum; quia ha sola etiam per se conjunctæ plenam faciunt orationem; alias autem partes συκαθηγοςήματα, hoc est, consignificantia appellabant. Priscian. 1. 2. p. 574. Edit. Putschii. Existit hic quadam quastio, cur duo tantum, Nomen & Verbum, se (Aristoteles sc.) determinare promittat, cum plures partes orationis esse videantur. Quibus hoc dicendum est, tantum Aristotelem hoc libro diffinisse, quantum illi ad id, quod instituerat tractare, suffecit. Tractat namque de simplici emuntiativa oratione, qua scilicet hujusmodi est, ut junctis tantum Verbis et Nominibus componatur.—Quare superfluum est quærere, cur alias quoque, quæ videntur orationis partes, non proposuerit, qui non totius simpliciter orationis, sed tantum simplicis orationis instituit elementa partiri. Boctius in Libr. de Interpretat. p. 295. Apollonius from the above principles elegantly calls the Noun and VERB TR improverse when This to the most animated parts of Speech. De Syntaxi, l. 1. c. 3, p. 24. See also Plutarch. Quast. Platon. p. 1009.

^{*} Poet , Cap. 20.

Ch. III. gated speech) adds the Article and Conjunction to the Noun and Verb, and so adopts the same Parts, with those established in this Treatise. To Aristotle's authority (if indeed better can be required) may be added that also of the elder Stoics (h).

> THE latter Stoics instead of four Parts made five, by dividing the Noun into the Appellative and Proper. Others increased the number, by detaching the Pronoun from the Noun: the Participle and Adverb from the Verb; and the Preposition from the Conjunction. The Latin Grammarians went farther. and detached the Interjection from the Adverb, within which by the Greeks it was always included, as a Species.

> > $\mathbf{W}_{\mathbf{E}}$

⁽h) For this we have the authority of Dionysius, of Halicarnassus, De Struct. Orat. Sect. 2. whom Quintilian follows, Inst. l. 1. c. 4. Diogenes Laertius and Priscian make them always to have admitted five Parts. See Priscian, as before, and Laertius, Lib. VII. Segm. 57.

We are told indeed by (i) Dionysius Ch. III. of Halicarnassus and Quintilian, that Aristotle, with Theodectes, and the more early writers, held but three Parts of speech, the Noun, the Verb, and the Conjunction. This, it must be owned, accords with the oriental Tongues, whose Grammars (we are (k) told) admit no other. But as to Aristotle, we have his own authority to assert the contrary, who not only enumerates the four Species which we have adopted, but ascertains them each by a proper Definition.*

D 2

To

⁽f) See the places quoted in the note immediately preceding.

⁽k) Antiquissima eorum est opinio, qui tres classes faciunt. Estque hac Arabum quoque sententia—Hebrai quoque (qui, cum Arabes Grammaticam scribere desinerent,
ertem eam demum scribere caeperunt, quod ante annos contigit circiter quadringentos) Hebrai, inquam, hac in re secuti sunt magistros suos Arabes.—Immo vero trium clasnum numerum alia etiam Orientis lingua retinent.—
Dubium, utrum eâ in re Orientales imituti sunt antiquos
Gracorum, an hi potius secuti sunt Orientalium exemplum.
Utut est, etiam veteres Gracos tres tantum partes agnocisse, non solum autor est Dionysius, &c. Voss. de Analog. 1. 1. c. 1. See also Sanctii Minerv. l. 1. c. 2.

^{*} Sup. p. 34.

Ch. III.

To conclude—the Subject of the following Chapters will be a distinct and separate consideration of the Noun, the Verb, the Article, and the Conjunction; which four, the better (as we apprehend) to express their respective natures, we chuse to call Substantives, Attributives, Definitives, and Connectives.

CHAP. IV.

Concerning Substantives, properly so called.

SUBSTANTIVES are all those principal Ch. IV. Words, which are significant of Substances, considered as Substances.

THE first sort of Substances are the NATURAL, such as Animal, Vegetable, Man, Oak.

THERE are other Substances of our own making. Thus by giving a Figure not natural to natural Materials, we create such Substances, as House, Ship, Watch, Telescope, &c.

AGAIN, by a more refined operation of our Mind alone, we abstract any Attribute from its necessary subject, and consider it apart, devoid of its dependence.

D 3 dence.

abstract to Fly; from Surface, the being White; from Soul, the being Temperate.

AND thus it is we convert even Attributes into Substances, denoting them on this occasion by proper Substantives, such as Flight, Whiteness, Temperance; or else by others more general, such as Motion, Colour, Virtue. These we call ABSTRACT SUBSTANCES; the second sort we call ARTIFICIAL.

Now all those several Substances have their Genus, their Species, and their Individuals. For example, in natural Substances, Animal is a Genus; Man, a Species; Alexander, an Individual. In artificial Substances, Edifice is a Genus; Palace, a Species; the Vatican, an Individual. In abstract Substances, Motion is a Genus; Flight, a Species; this Flight or that Flight are Individuals.

As therefore every (a) GENUS may be Ch. IV. found whole and intire in each one of its Species; (for thus Man, Horse, and Dog, are each of them distinctly a complete and intire Animal) and as every Species may be found whole and intire in each one of its Individuals; (for thus Socrates, Plato, and Xenophon, are each of them completely and distinctly a Man) hence it is, that every Genus, though ONE, is multiplied into MANY; and every Species, though ONE, is also multiplied into-MANY, by reference to those beings which are their proper subordinates. Since then no individual has any such subordinates, it can never in strictness be considered as Many, and so is truly an Individual as well in Nature as in Name.

D 4

From

⁽a) This is what Plato seems to have expressed in a manner somewhat mysterious, when he talks of μίαν ίδιαν διά πολλῶν, ἱνὸς ἱκάς α κιιμίνε χωςὶς, πὰνῖλ διατεταμίνην— κὸ πολλὰς, ἱτίςας ἀλληλων, ὑτὸ μιᾶς ἔξωθεν πιεμχυμίνας.— Sophist. p. 253. Edit. Serrani. For the common definition of Genus and Species, see the Isagoge or Introduction of Porphyry to Aristotle's Logic.

W. From these Principles it is, that

Words following the nature and genius
of Things, such Substantives admit of

Number as denote Genera or Species,
while those, which denote (b) Individuals, in strictness admit it not.

Brsides

(3) Yet sometimes Individuals have plurality or Number, from the causes following. In the first place the Individuals of the human race are so large a multitude, even in the smallest nation, that it would be difficult to invent a new Name for every new-born Individual.—Hence then instead of one only being call'd Marcus, and even only Antonius, it happens that many are called Marcus and many called Antonius; and thus 'tis the Romans had their Pturals, Marci and Antonii, as we in later days have our Marks and our Anthonics. Now the Pturals of this sort may be well called accidental, because it is merely by chance that the Names coincide.

There seems more reason for such Plurals, as the Pto-Armies, Scipius, Catus, or (to instance in modern names) the Hearards. Pethams, and Montagues; because a Race or Family is like a smaller sort of Species; so that the Jamely Name extends to the Kindred, as the specific Name extends to the Individuals.

A third cause which contributed to make proper Names become Plural, was the high Character or Emiments of some one Individual, whose Name became afterwards a kind of courses Appellative, to denote all those, Besides Number, another characteristic, visible in Substances, is that of Sex. Every Substance is either Male or Female; or both Male and Female; or neither one nor the other. So that with respect to Sexes and their Negation, all Substances conceivable are comprehended under this fourfold consideration.

Now the existence of *Hermaphrodites* being rare, if not doubtful; hence Language,

who had pretensions to merit in the same way. Thus every great Critic was call'd an Aristorchus; every great Warrior, an Alexander; every great Bennin, a Helen, &c.

A Daniel come to judgment! yea a Daniel, cries Shylock in the Play, when he would express the wisdom of the young Lawyer.

So Murtial in that well known verse, Sint M.ECENATES, non deerunt, Flacce, MARONES.

So Lucilius,

Ch. IV. guage, only regarding those distinctions which are more obvious, considers

Words denoting Substances to be either.

MASCULINE, FEMININE, or NEUTER*.

As to our own Species, and all those animal Species, which have reference to common Life, or of which the Male and the Female, by their size, form, colour, &c. are eminently distinguished, most Languages have different Substantives, to denote the Male and the Female.—But as to those animal Species, which either less frequently occur, or of which one Sex is less apparently distinguished from the other, in these a single Substantive commonly serves for both Sexes.

In

^{*} After this manner they are distinguished by Aristotle. Two διομάτων τὰ μὶν ἄρρινα, τὰ δὶ θήλια, τὰ δὶ μιταξύ. Poet. cap. 21. Protagoras before him had established the same Distinction, calling them ἄρρινα, θήλια, κὸ σκίνν.— Aristot. Rhet. L. III. c. 5. Where mark what were afterwards called ἐδίτιςα, or Neuters, were by these called τὰ μιταξῦ κὸ σκίνν.

†In the English Tongue it seems a ge-Ch. IV. neral rule (except only when infringed by a figure of Speech) that no Substantive is Masculine, but what denotes a Male animal Substance; none Feminine, but what denotes a Female animal Substance; and that where the Substance has no Sex, the Substantive is always Neuter.

But 'tis not so in Greek, Latin, and many of the modern Tongues. These all of them have Words, some masculine, some feminine (and those too in great multitudes) which have reference to Substances, where Sex never had existence. To give one instance for many. MIND is surely neither male, nor female; yet is NOYE, in Greek, masculine, and MENS, in Latin, feminine.

In

⁺ Nam quicquid per Naturam Sexui non adsignatur, neutrum haberi oporteret, sed id Ars, &c. Consent. apud Putsch. p. 2023, 2024.

The whole Passage from Genera Hominum, qua naturalia sunt, &c. is worth perusing.

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Ch. IV.

In some Words these distinctions seem owing to nothing else, than to the mere casual structure of the Word itself: It is of such a Gender, from having such a Termination; or from belonging perhaps to such a Declension. In others we may imagine a more subtle kind of reasoning, a reasoning which discerns, even in things without Sex, a distant analogy to that great NATURAL DISTINCTION, which (according to Milton) animates the World.;

In this view we may conceive such SUBSTANTIVES to have been considered as MASCULINE, which were "conspi"cuous for the Attributes of imparting "or communicating; or which were by "nature active, strong, and efficacious, "and that indiscriminately whether to "good or to ill; or which had claim to Eminence,

[†] Mr. Linnaus, the celebrated Botanist, has traced the Distinction of Sexes throughout the whole Vegetable World, and made it the Basis of his Botanic Method.

Eminence, either laudable or other- Ch. IV.

THE FEMININE on the contrary were "such, as were conspicuous for the At"tributes either of receiving, of con"taining, or of producing and bringing forth; or which had more of the pas"sive in their nature, than of the ac"tive; or which were peculiarly beau"tiful and amiable; or which had re"spect to such excesses, as were rather "Feminine, than Masculine."

Upon these Principles the two greater Luminaries were considered, one as Masculine, the other as Feminine; the Sun ("Has, Sol) as Masculine, from communicating Light, which was native and original, as well as from the vigorous warmth and efficacy of his Rays; the Moon (Seasim, Luna) as Feminine, from being the Receptacle only of another's Light, and from shining with rays more delicate and soft.

THUS

Ch. IV. THUS Milton,

First in HIS East the glorious Lamp was seen,

Regent of Day, and all th' Horizon round Invested with bright rays; jocund to run His longitude thro' Heav'n's high road: the gray

Dawn, and the Pleiades before HIM danc'd, Shedding sweet influence. Less bright the Moon

But opposite, in levell'd West was set,
His mirrour, with full face borrowing
HER Light

From HIM; for other light SHE needed none. P. L. VII. 370.

By Virgil they were considered as Brother and Sister, which still preserves the same distinction.

- Nec Fratris radiis obnoxia surgere Luna. G. I. 396.

THE SKY OF ETHER is in Greek and Latin Masculine, as being the source of those showers, which impregnate the Earth.

Earth. *The Earth on the contrary is universally Feminine, from being the grand Receiver, the grand Container, but above all from being the Mother (either mediately or immediately) of every sublunary Substance, whether animal or vegetable.

Ch.IV.

THUS Virgil,

Tum Pater omnipotens fæcundis imbribus Æther

Conjugis in gremium lete descendit, & omnes

Magnus alit magno commixtus corpore fætus. G. II. 325.

Thus Shakespear,

--- COMMON MOTHER, Thou

Whose Womb unmeasurable, and infinite breast

Teems and feeds all—Tim. of Athens.

So Milton,

Whatever Earth, ALL-BEARING Mo-THER, yields, P. L. V.

So

^{*} Senecæ Nat. Quæst. III. 14.

[‡] Παμμήτορ γή χαίζε-Græc. Anth. p. 281.

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IV. So Virgil,

Non jam MATER alit Tellus, viresque ministrat (c).

Æn. XI. 71.

AMONG artificial Substances the SHIP (Naws, Navis) is feminine, as being so eminently a Receiver and Container of various things, of Men, Arms, Provisions, Goods, &c. Hence Sailors, speaking of their Vessel, say always, "she rides at "anchor," "she is under sail."

A CITY (Πόλις, Civitas) and a COUNTRY, (Πάτρις, Patria) are feminine also, by being (like the Ship) Containers and Receivers, and farther by being as it were the Mothers and Nurses of their respective Inhabitants.

Tuus

⁽c)—διὸ κὰ ἐν τῷ ὅλῳ τὴν ΓΗΣ φύσιν, ὡς ΘΗΛΥ κὰ ΜΗΤΕΡΑ νομίζεσιν ΟΥΓΑΝΟΝ δὶ κὰ ΗΛΙΟΝ, κὰ ἔι τι τῶν ἄλλων τῶν τοιέτων, ὡς ΓΕΝΩΝΤΑΣ κὰ ΠΑΤΕΡΑΣ ωξοσαγορεύεσι. Arist. de Gener. Anim. 1. c. 2.

THUS Virgil,

Ch. JV.

Salve, MAGNA PARENS FRUGUM, Saturnia Tellus,

MAGNA VIRUM—— Geor. II. 173.

So, in that Heroic Epigram on those brave *Greeks*, who fell at *Chæronea*,

Γαΐα δὲ Πάτρις ἔχει κόλποις τῶν πλεῖςα καμόντων

Σώματα-

Their PARENT COUNTRY in HER bosom holds

Their wearied bodies.—*

So Milton,

The City, which Thou seest, no other deem
Than great and glorious Rome, QUEEN
of the Earth. Par. Reg. L. IV.

As to the OCEAN, tho' from its being the Receiver of all Rivers, as well as the Container and Productress of so many Vegetables

^{*} Demost. in Orat. de Corona.

Cn. IV. Vegetables and Animals, it might justly have been made (like the Earth) Feminine; yet its deep Voice and boisterous Nature have, in spight of these reasons, prevailed to make it Male. Indeed the very sound of Homer's

> --μέγα σθέν Ωκεανοῖο, would suggest to a hearer, even igno-

> rant of its meaning, that the Subject was incompatible with female delicacy and softness.

TIME (Xoov) from his mighty Efficacy upon every thing around us, is by the Greeks and English justly considered as Masculine. Thus in that elegant distich, spoken by a decrepit old Man, * Ο γαρ Χρόν Φ μ' ἔκαμψε, τέκτων ε σοφός. "Απαντα δ' ἐργαζόμεν Φο ἀσθενές ερα. †

Me Time hath bent, that sorry Artist, HE That' surely makes, whate'er he handles, worse.

So

^{*} Ω Χρόνε, ωανδοίων θνηθών ωανεπίσκοπε Δαϊμον. Græc. Anth. p. 290.

⁺ Stob. Ecl. p. 591.

So too Shakespear, speaking likewise Ch. IV. of TIME,

Orl. Whom doth HE gallop withal?
Ros. With a thief to the gallows.—
As you like it.

THE Greek Odvat or Along, and the English Death, seem from the same irresistible Power to have been considered as Masculine. Even the vulgar with us are so accustomed to this notion, that a Female Death they would treat as ridiculous.

TAKE a few examples of the masculine Death.

E 2

Calli-

⁽d) Well therefore did Milton in his Paradise Lost not only adopt Death as a Person, but consider him as Musculine: in which he was so far from introducing a Phantom of his own, or from giving it a Gender not supported by Custom, that perhaps he had as much the Sanction of national Opinion for his Musculine Death, as the ancient Poets had for many of their Deities.

Callimachus upon the Elegies of his Ch. IV. Friend Heraclitus-

> Αι δὲ τεαὶ ζώβσιν ἀἡδονες, ἤτιν ο πάντων ΄,Αρπάντης 'Αΐδης Βα ἐπὶ χεῖρα βαλεῖ.

-yet thy sweet warbling strains Still live immortal, nor on them shall DEATH

His hand e'er lay, tho' Ravager of all

In the Alcestis of Euripides, Θάνατ 🕒 or DEATH is one of the Persons of the drama; the beginning of the play is made up of dialogue between Him and Apollo; and towards its end, there is a fight between Him and Hercules, in which Hercules is conqueror, and rescues Alcestis from his hands.

It is well known too, that Sleep and DEATH are made Brothers by Homer. It was to this old Gorgias elegantly alluded, when at the extremity of a long life he lay slumbering on his Death-bed. A Friend asked him, "How he did?"—

SLEEP.

"SLEEP (replied the old Man) is just Ch. IV.

" upon delivering me over to the care of his Brother(e)."

THUS Shakespear, speaking of Life,
—merely Thou art Death's Fool;
For HIM Thou labour'st by thy flight to shun,

And yet run'st towards HIM still.

Meas. for Meas.

So Milton.

Dire was the tossing, deep the groans;,

Despair

Tended the sick, busiest from couch to couch:

And over them triumphant Death his dart

Shook; but delay'd to strike-

P. L. XI. 489(f).

E 3

THE

And

⁽c) Ήδη με Ο ΥΠΝΟΣ ἄξχεται παξακατατίθεσθαι Τ' ΑΔΕΛΦΩΙ. Stob. Ecl. p. 600.

O Suppose in any one of these examples we introduce a femule Death; suppose we read,

Ch. IV.

THE supreme Being (God, Oedg, Deus, Dieu, &c.) is in all languages Masculine, in as much as the masculine Sex is the superior and more excellent; and as He is the Cheator of all, the Father of Gods and Men. Sometimes indeed we meet with such words as To Πρώτον, Τὸ Θείον Numen, Deity (which last we English join to a neuter, saying Deity itself) sometimes I say we meet with these Neuters. The reason in these instances seems to be, that as Gop is prior to all things, both in dignity and in time, this Priority is better characterized and exprest by a Negation, than by any of those Distinctions which are co-ordinate with some Opposite, as Male

And over them triumphant Death HER dart Shook, &c.

What a falling off! How are the nerves and strength of the whole sentiment weakened! Male for example is co-ordinate with Ch. IV. Female, Right with Left, &c. &c.(g).

VIRTUE ('Ageth), Virtus) as well as most of its Species, are all Feminine, perhaps from their Beauty and amiable Appearance, which are not without effect even upon the most reprobate and corrupt.

E 4 —abash'd

(8) Thus Ammonius, speaking on the same Subject-ΤΟ ΠΡΩΤΟΝ λίγομεν, έφ' ο μπ δι των διά μυθολογίας σιαςαδόντων ήμιν τὰς θεολογίας ετόλμησε τις η άβρενωπον, η θυληπρεπή (lege θηλυπειπή) διαμόεφωσιν φίειν. κ) τέτο δικότως τῷ μὸν γλε αβρενι το θήλυ σύτοιχον· το (lege τῷ) δε ΠΑΝΤΗΙ ΑΠΛΩΣ ΑΙΤΙΩΙ σύςοιχον έδεν άλλα κ όταν άςσενικώς ΤΟΝ ΘΕΟΝ διομάζομεν, [ωρός] τὸ σεμνότερον τῶν γενῶν τε ὑφειμένε ωροτιμώντις, έτως αὐτὸν ωροσαγορίνομιν. PRIMUM dicimus, quod nemo etiam eorum, qui theologiam nobis fabularum integumentis obvolutum tradiderunt, vel maris vel fæminæ specie fingere ausus est: idque merito: conjugatum enim mari fæmininum est. CAUSE autem omnino ABSO-LUT & AC SIMPLICI nihil est conjugatum. Immo vero cum DEUM masculino genere appellamus, ita ipsum nominamus, genus præstantius submisso atque humili præferentes.-Ammon. in Lib. de Interpr. p. 30. b. - à yae ivartior to Πρώτω લેટેલ. Aristot. Metaph. A. p. 210. Sylb.

HERMES.

Ch. IV. —abash'd the Devil stood,

And felt how awful Goodness is, and saw VIRTUE in her shape how lovely; saw, and pin'd

His loss----

P. L. IV. 846.

This being allowed, Vice (Kanla) becomes Feminine of course, as being, in the $\sigma v \leq o(\chi l \alpha)$, or Co-ordination of things, Virtue's natural Opposite^(h).

THE Fancies, Caprices, and fickle Changes of FORTUNE would appear but awkwardly under a Character that was Male: but taken together they make a very

⁽h) They are both represented as Females by Xenophon, in the celebrated Story of Hercules, taken from Prodicus. See Memorab. L. II. c. 1. As to the συςοιχία here mentioned, thus Varro—Pythagoras Samius ait omnium rerum initia esse bina: ut finitum & infinitum, bonum & malum, vitam & mortem, diem & noctem. De Ling. Lat. L. IV. See also Arist. Metaph. L. 1. c. 5. and Ecclesiasticus, Chap. lxii. ver. 24.

BOOK THE FIRST.

very natural Female, which has no small Ch. VI. resemblance to the Coquette of a modern Comedy, bestowing, withdrawing, and shifting her favours, as different Beaus succeed to her good graces.

Transmutat incertos honores,
Nunc mihi, nunc alii benigna. Hor.

WHY the FURIES were made Female, is not so easy to explain, unless it be that female Passions of all kinds were considered as susceptible of greater excess, than male Passions; and that the Furies were to be represented, as Things superlatively outrageous.

Talibus Alecto dictis exarsit in iras.

At Juveni oranti subitus tremor occupat artus:

Diriguere oculi: tot Erinnys sibilat Hydris,

Tantaque se facies aperit: tum flammea torquens

Lumina

Ch. IV. Lumina cunctantem & quærentem dicere plura

Repulit, & geminos erexit orinibus an-

Verberaque insonuit, rabidoque hæc addidit ore:

En! Ego victa situ, &c.

Æn. VII. 4550).

HE

(i) The Words above mentioned Time, Death, Fortune, Virtue, &c. in Greek, Latin, French, and most modern Languages, though they are diversified with Genders in the manner described, yet never vary the Gender which they have once acquir'd, except in a few instances, where the Gender is doubtful. 'We cannot say i delike or à delike, have Virtus or hie Virtus, la Virtu or le Virtu, and so of the rest. But it is otherwise in English. We in our own language say, Virtue is its own reward, or Virtue is her own reward; Time maintains its wonted Pace, or Time maintains his wonted Pace.

There is a singular advantage in this liberty, as it enables us to mark, with a peculiar force, the Distinction between the severe or Logical Style, and the ornamental or Rhetorical. For thus when we speak of the above Words,

He, that would see more on this Sub- Ch. IV. ject, may consult Ammonius the Peripatetic,

Words, and of all others naturally devoid of Sex, as Neuters, we speak of them as they are, and as becomes a logical Inquiry. When we give them Sex, by making them Masculine or Feminine, they are from thenceforth personified; are a kind of intelligent Beings, and become, as such, the proper ornaments either of Rhetoric or of Poetry.

Thus Milton,

——The Thunder,
Wing'd with red light'ning and imp

Wing'd with red light'ning and impetuous rage,
Perhaps hath spent HIS shafts---- P. Lost. I. 174.

The Poet, having just before called the Hail, and Thunder, God's Ministers of Vengeance, and so personified them, had he afterwards said its Shafts for his Shafts, would have destroyed his own Image, and approached withal so much nearer to Prose.

The following Passage is from the same Poem.

Should intermitted Vengeance arm again

His red right hand—— P. L. II, 174.

In this Place His Hand is clearly preferable either to Her's or It's, by immediately referring us to God himself, the Avenger.

I shall

Ch. IV. tetic, in his Commentary on the Treatise de Interpretatione, where the Subject is treated at large with respect to the Greek Tongue. We shall only observe, that as all such Speculations are at best but Conjectures, they should therefore

I shall only give one instance more, and quit the

At his command th' up-rooted Hills retir'd

Each to HIS place: they heard his voice and went

Obsequious: Heav'n HIS wonted face renew'd,

And with fresh flourets Hill and Valley smil'd.

P. L. VI.

See also ver. 54, 55, of the same Book.

Here all things are personified; the Hills hear, the Valleys smile, and the Face of Heaven is renewed.—Suppose then the Poet had been necessitated by the laws of his Language to have said—Each Hill retir'd to its Place—Heaven renew'd its wonted face—how prosaic and lifeless would these Neuters have appeared; how detrimental to the Prosopopeia, which he was aiming to establish! In this therefore he was happy, that the Language, in which he wrote, imposed no such necessity; and he was too wise a Writer, to impose it on himself. It were to be wished, his correctors had been as wise on their parts.

be received with candour, rather than Ch. IV. scrutinized with rigour. Varro's words on a Subject near akin, are for their aptness and elegance well worth attending. Non mediocres enim tenebræ in silvâ, ubi hæc captanda; neque eò, quò percenire volumus, semitæ tritæ; neque non in tramitibus quadam objecta, qua eleratem retinere possunt.*

To conclude this Chapter. We may collect from what has been said, that both Number and Gender appertain to Words, because in the first place they appertain to THINGS; that is to say, because Substances are Many, and have either Sex, or no Sex; therefore Substantives have Number, and are Masculine, Feminine, or Neuter. however this difference between the two Attributes: NUMBER in strictness descends no lower, than to the last Rank

^{*} De Ling. Lat. L. IV.

ch. IV. of Species(k): GENDER on the contrary stops not here, but descends to every Individual, however diversified. And so much for Substantives, property so Called.

⁽k) The reason why Number goes no lower, is that it does not naturally appertain to Individuals: the cause of which see before, p. 39.

CHAP. V.

Concerning Substantives of the Secondary Order.

WE are now to proceed to a Secon-DARY RACE of SUBSTANTIVES, a Race quite different from any already mentioned, and whose Nature may be explained in the following manner.

Ch. V.

EVERY Object which presents itself to the Senses or the Intellect, is either then perceived for the first time, or else is recognized as having been perceived before. In the former case it is called an Object τῆς πρώτης γνώτεως, of the first knowledge or acquaintance(a); in the latter

⁽a) See Apoll. de Syntaxi, 1. 1. c. 16. p. 49. l. 2. c. 3. p. 103. Thus Priscian—Interest autem inter demonstrationem & relationem hoc; quod demonstratio, interrogationi reddita, Primam Cognitionem ostendit; Quis fecit?

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V. latter it is called an Object της δεύτερας γνώτεως of the second knowledge or acquaintance.

Now as all Conversation passes between Particulars or Individuals, these will often happen to be reciprocally Objects τῆς πρώτης γνώσεως, that is to say, till that instant unacquainted with each other. What then is to be done? How shall the Speaker address the other, when he knows not his Name? or how explain himself by his own Name, of which the other is wholly ignorant? Nouns, as they have been described, cannot answer the purpose. The first expedient upon this occasion seems to have been deitie, that is, Pointing, or Indication by the Finger or Hand, some traces of which are still to be observed, as a part of that Action, which naturally attends our speaking.

But

fecit? Ego: relatio vero Secundam Cognitionem significat, ut, Is, de quo jam dixi. Lib. XII. p. 936. Edit. Putschii.

But the Authors of Language were not Ch. V. content with this. They invented a race of Words to supply this Pointing; which Words, as they always stood for Substantives or Nouns, were characterized by the Name of 'Autwundan, or PRONOUNS (b). These also they distinguished into three several sorts, calling them Pronouns of the First, the Second. and the Third Person, with a view to certain distinctions, which may be explained as follows.

Suppose the Parties conversing to be wholly unacquainted, neither Name nor Countenance on either side known, and the

⁽⁶⁾ Έχειτο Εν Αντωνυμία, τὸ μετά ΔΕΙΕΕΩΣ η ἀναφοράς ANTONOMAZOMENON. Apoll. de Synt. L. II. c. 5. P. 106. Priscian seems to consider them so peculiarly destined to the expression of Individuals, that he does not say they supply the place of any Noun, but that of the proper Name only. And this undoubtedly was their original, and still is their true and natural use. PRO-MONEN est pars orationis, quæ pro nomine proprio uniuscujusque accipitur. Prisc. L. XII. See also Apoll. L. II. c. 9. p. 117, 118.

ch. V. the Subject of the Conversation to be the Speaker himself. Here, to supply the place of Pointing by a Word of equal Power, they furnished the Speaker with the Pronoun, I. I write, I say, I desire, &c. and as the Speaker is always principal with respect to his own discourse, this they called for that reason the Pronoun of the First Person.

AGAIN, suppose the Subject of the Conversation to be the Party addrest. Here for similar reasons they invented the Pronoun, Thou. Thou writest, Thou walkest, &c. and as the Party addrest is next in dignity to the Speaker, or at least comes next with reference to the discourse; this Pronoun they therefore called the Pronoun of the Second Person.

LASTLY, suppose the Subject of Conversation neither the Speaker, nor the Party addrest, but some Third Object, different from both. Here they provided another Pronoun. HE, SHE, or IT, which

which in distinction to the two former Ch. V. was called the Pronoun of the Third Person.

And thus it was that Pronouns came to be distinguished by their respective Persons(c).

F 2

As

(c) The description of the different Persons here given is taken from Priscian, who took it from Apollonius. Personæ Pronominum sunt tres; prima, secunda, tertia. Prima est, cum ipsa, quæ loquitur, de se pronuntiat; Secunda, cum de eá pronunciat, ad quam directo sermone loquitur; Tertia, cum de eû, quæ nec loquitur, nec ad se directum accipit Sermonem. L. XII. p. 940. Theodore Gaza gives the same Distinctions. Πεῶτον (ωρόσωπον SC.) φ satel έαυθε φεάζει ὁ λέγων δέυθτεον, ῷ απερὶ τε, απεὸς ὑν ὁ λίγο τείτοι, ο ωιεί έτες Gaz. Gram. L. IV. p. 152.

This account of Persons is far preferable to the common one, which makes the First the Speaker; the Second, the Party addrest; and the Third, the Subject. For tho' the First and Second be as commonly described, one the Speaker, the other the Party addrest; yet till they become subjects of the discourse, they have no existence. Again as to the Third Person's being the subjed, this is a character, which it shares in common with both

Ch. V. As to NUMBER, the Pronoun of each Person has it: (I) has the plural (we), because there may be many Speakers at

once

both the other Persons, and which can never therefore be called a peculiarity of its own. To explain by an instance or two. When Eneas begins the narrative of his adventures, the second Person immediately appears. because he makes Dido, whom he addresses, the immediate subject of his Discourse.

Infandum, Regina, jubes, renovare delorem.

From hence forward for 1500 Verses (tho' she be all that time the party addrest) we hear nothing farther of this Second Person, a variety of other Subjects filling up the Narrative.

In the mean time the First Person may be seen every where, because the Speaker every where is himself the Subject. They were indeed Events, as he says himself,

> -quaque ipse miserrima vidi, Et quorum pars magna fui-

Not that the Second Person does not often occur in the course of this Narrative; but then it is always by a Figure of Speech, when those, who by their absence are in fact so many Third Persons, are converted into Second Persons once of the same Sentiment; as well as Ch. V. one, who, including himself, speaks the Sentiment of many. (Thou) has the plural (you), because a Speech may be spoken to many, as well as to one. (HE) has the plural (THEY), because the Subject of discourse is often many at once.

But the all these Pronouns have Number, it does not appear either in Greek, or Latin, or any modern Language, that those of the first and second Person carry the distinctions of Sex. The reason seems to be, that the F 3 Speaker

Persons by being introduced as present. The real Second Person (Dido) is never once hinted.

Thus far as to Virgil. But when we read Euclid, we and neither First Person, nor Second, in any Part of the whole Work. The reason is, that neither Speaker nor Party addrest, (in which light we may always view the Writer and his reader) can possibly become the Subject of pure Mathematics, nor indeed can any thing else, except abstract Quantity, which neither speaks itself, nor is spoken to by another.

Ch. V. Speaker and Hearer being generally present to each other, it would have been superfluous to have marked a distinction by Arthwhich from Nature and even Dress was commonly (d) apparent on both sides. But this does not hold with respect to the third Person, of whose Character and Distinctions. (including Sex among the rest) we often know no more, than what we learn from the discourse. And hence it is that in most Languages the third Person has its Genders, and that even English (which allows its Adjectives no Genders at all) has in this Pronoun the triple(*) distinction of He, She, and It.

HENCE

⁽d) Demonstratio ipsa secum genus ostendit. Priscian. L. XII. p. 942. See Apoll. de Syntax. L. II. c. 7, p. 109.

⁽c) The Utility of this Distinction may be better found in supposing it away. Suppose for example we should read in history these words—He caused him to destroy him—

Hence too we see the reason why a single Pronoun (f) to each Person, an I to the First, and a Thou to the Second, are abundantly sufficient to all the purposes

him—and that we were to be informed the [He], which is here thrice repeated, stood each time for something different, that is to say, for a Man, for a Woman, and for a City, whose Names were Alexander, Thais, and Persepolis. Taking the Pronoun in this manner, divested of its Genders, how would it appear, which was destroyed; which was the destroyer; and which the cause, that moved to the destruction? But there are not such doubts, when we hear the Genders distinguished; when instead of the ambiguous sentence, He caused him to destroy him, we are told with the proper distinctions, that she caused him to destroy it. Then we know with certainty, what before we could not: that the Promoter was the woman; that her Instrument was the Hero; and that the Subject of their Cruelty was the unfortunate. City.

O Quaritur tamen cur prima quidem Persona & secunda singula Pronomina habeant, tertiam vero sex diversa indicent voces? Ad quod respondendum est, quod prima quidem & secunda Persona ideo non egent diversis vocibus, quod semper præsentes inter se sunt, & demonstrativa; tertia vero Persona modo demonstrativa est, ut, Hic, Iste; modo relativa, ut Is, Ipse, &c. Priscian. L. XII. p. 933.

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poses of Speech. But it is not so with respect to the *Third* Person. The various relations of the various Objects exhibited by this (I mean relations of near and distant, present and absent, same and different, definite and indefinite, &c.) made it necessary that here there should not be one, but many Pronouns, such as He, This, That, Other, Any, Some, &c.

It must be confessed indeed, that all these Words do not always appear as Pronouns. 'When they stand by themselves, and represent some Noun, (as when we say, This is Virtue, or deintings, Give me That) then are they Pronouns. But when they are associated to some Noun (as when we say, This Habit is Virtue; or deintings, That Man defrauded me) then as they supply not the place of a Noun, but only serve to ascertain one, they fall rather into the Species of Definitives or Articles. That there is indeed a near relation between Pronouns

Pronouns and Articles, the old Gram-Ch. v. marians have all acknowledged, and some words it has been doubtful to which Class to refer. The best rule to distinguish them is this—The genuine Pronoun always stands by itself, assuming the Power of a Noun, and supplying its place—The genuine Article never stands by itself, but appears at all times associated to something else, requiring a Noun for its support, as much as Attributives or (8) Adjectives.

As

(c) Τὸ ᾿Αςθςον μεὶὰ ὀνόμαίω, κỳ ἡ ᾿Αιὶωνυμία ἀνῖ ὀνόμαίω. ΤΗΕ ΑRTICLE stands WITH a Noun; but THE PRONOUN stands FOR a Noun. Apell. L. I. c. 3. p. 22. ᾿Ανὶὰ ἔν τὰ ἄςθςα, τῆς ϖςὸς τὰ ὀνόμαία συναςτήσιως ἀποςάντα, εἰς τὰν ὑνοτιταγμίνηι ἀντωνυμίαν μιταπίπθιι. Now Articles themselves, when they quit their Connection with Nouns, pass into such Pronoun, as is proper upon the occasion. Ibid. Again— Ὅταν τὸ Ἅςθςον μὰ μιτ ἀνόματω ϖαραλαμδάνηται, ϖνήσνίαι δὶ σύνταξιν ὀνόματω ἢι ϖροκλεθίιμεθα, ἐκ πάσης ἀνάγκης εἰς ἀνλωνυμίαν μελαληφθήσεται, είγε ἀκ ἐγινόμενον μιτ ἀνόματω δυνάμει ἀντὶ ὀνόματω ϖαρελάφθη. When the Arti-

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As to the Coalescence of these Pronouns, it is, as follows. The First or Second will, either of them, by themselves

cle is assumed without the Noun, and has (as we explained before) the same Syntax, which the Noun has; it must of absolute necessity be admitted for a Pronoun, because it appears without a Noun, and yet is in Power assumed for one. Ejusd. L. II. c. 8. p. 113. L. I. c. 45. p. 96.—Inter Pronomina & Articulos hoc Interest, quod Pronomina ea putantur, quæ, cum sola sint, vicem nominis complent, ut quis, ille, iste: Articuli vero cum Pronominibus, aut Nominibus, aut Participiis adjunguntur. Donat. Gram. p. 1753.

Priscian, speaking of the Stoics, says as follows: Articulis autem Pronomina connumerantes, finitos ca Articulos appellabant; ipsos autem Articulos, quibus nos caremus, infinitos Articulos dicebant. Vel, ut alii dicunt, Articulos connumerabant Pronominibus, & Articularia eos Pronomina vocabant, &c. Pris. L. I. p. 574. Varro, speaking of Quisque and Ilic, calls them both Articles, the first indefinite, the second definite. De Ling. Lat. L. VII. See also L. IX. p. 132. Vossius indeed in his Analogia (L. I. c. 1.) opposes this Doctrine, because Hic has not the same power with the Greek Article 6. But he did not enough attend to the antient Writers

selves coalesce with the Third, but not Ch. V. with each other. For example, it is good sense, as well as good Grammar, to say in any Language—I AM HE— THOU ART HE—but we cannot say—I AM THOU-nor THOU ART I. reason is, there is no absurdity for the 'Speaker to be the Subject also of the Discourse, as when we say, I am He; or for the Person addrest; as when we say, Thou art He. But for the same Person, in the same circumstances, to be at once the Speaker, and the Party addrest, this is impossible; and so therefore is the Coalescence of the First and Second Person.

AND now perhaps we have seen enough of *Pronouns*, to perceive how they

Writers on this Subject, who considered all Words, as ARTICLES, which being associated to Nouns (and not standing in their place) served in any manner to ascertain, and determine their signification.

Ch. V. they differ from other Substantives. The others are *Primary*, these are their Substitutes; a kind of secondary Race, which were taken in aid, when for reasons already (a) mentioned the others could not be used. It is moreover by means of these, and of Articles, which

are

Sed pulchrum est digito monstrari, & dicier, Hic est.

how the ditties and the Pronoun are introduced together, and made to co-operate to the same end.

Sometimes by virtue of diffic the Pronoun of the third Person stands for the first.

Quod si militibus parces, erit HIC quoque Miles. That is, I also will be a Soldier.

Tibul. L. II. El. 6. v. 7. See Vulpius.

⁽A) See these reasons at the beginning of this chapter, of which reasons the principal one is, that "no "Noun, properly so called, implies its own Presence. "It is therefore to ascertain such Presence, that the Pro- "noun is taken in aid; and hence it is it becomes equi- "valent to deitis, that is, to Pointing or Indication by "the Finger." It is worth remarking in that Verse of Persius,

are nearly allied to them, that "LAN-Ch. V. "GUAGE, tho' in itself only significant "of general Ideas, is brought down to "denote that infinitude of Particulars, "which are for ever arising, and ceas-"ing to be." But more of this hereafter in a proper place.

As to the three orders of Pronouns already mentioned, they may be called *Prepositive*, as may indeed all Substantives, because they are capable of introducing or leading a Sentence, without having reference to any thing previous. But besides those there is Ano-

THER

It may be observed too, that even in Epistolary Correspondence, and indeed in all kinds of Writing, where the Pronouns I and You make their appearance, there is a sort of implied Presence, which they are supposed to indicate, though the parties are in fact at ever so great a distance. And hence the rise of that distinction in Apollonius, this with the tires distance in Apollonius, the same Indications are ocular, and some are mental. De Syntaxi, L. II. c. 3. p. 104.

Ch. V. THER PRONOUN (in Greek &, 8515(i); in Latin, Qui; in English, Who, Which, That) a Pronoun having a character peculiar to itself, the nature of which may be explained as follows.

Suppose I was to say—Light is a Body, Light moves with great celerity.

These would apparently be two distinct Sentences.

⁽¹⁾ The Greeks, it must be confest, call this Pronoun υποτακλικὸν ἄρθρον, the subjunctive Article. Yet, as it should seem, this is but an improper Appellation. Apollonius, when he compares it to the weoraxlind or true prepositive Article, not only confesses it to differ, as being exprest by a different Word, and having a different place in every Sentence; but in Syntax he adds, it is wholly different. De Syntax. L. I. c. 43. p. 91. Theodore Gaza acknowledges the same, and therefore adds--- ober on n' & xugius ar Ein aebeor rauli--- for these reasons this (meaning the Subjunctive) cannot properly And just before he says, xueiws ye wir be an Article. ἄεθεον τὸ ωςοτακλικόν—however properly speaking it is the Prepositive is the Article. Gram. Introd. L. IV. The Latins therefore have undoubtedly done better in ranging it with the Pronouns.

Sentences. Suppose, instead of the Second, LIGHT, I were to place the prepositive Pronoun, IT, and say—LIGHT is a Body; IT moves with great celerity—the Sentences would still be distinct and two. But if I add a Connective (as for Example an AND) saying—LIGHT is a Body, AND it moves with great celerity—I then by Connection make the two into one, as by cementing many Stones I make one Wall.

Now it is in the united Powers of a Connective, and another Pronoun, that we may see the force, and character of the Pronoun here treated. Thus therefore, if in the place of AND IT, we substitute THAT, or WHICH, saying LIGHT is a Body, WHICH moves with great celerity—the Sentence still retains its Unity and Perfection, and becomes if possible more compact than before. We may with just reason therefore call this Pronoun the Subjunctive, because

Ch. V. cause it cannot (like the Prepositive) introduce an original Sentence, but only serves to subjoin one to some other, which is previous^(k).

THE.

(a) Hence we see why the Pronoun here mentioned is always necessarily the Part of some complex Sentence, which Sentence contains, either exprest or understood, two Verbs, and two Nominatives.

Thus in that Verse of Horace,

Qui metuens vivit, liber mihi non erit unquam.

Ille non erit liber—is one Sentence; qui metuens vivit—is another. Ille and Qui are the two Nominatives; Erit and Vivit, the two Verbs; and so in all other instances.

The following passage from Apollonius (though somewhat corrupt in more places than one) will serve to shew, whence the above speculations are taken. Τὸ ὑποτακλικὸν ἄρθρον ἐπὶ βῆμα ἴδιον φίριται, συνδιδεμένον διὰ τῆς ἀναφορᾶς τῷ σερακειμένο ὀνόματι: χὰ ἐντεῦθεν ἀπλῦς λόγον ἐ συαρικάνει καλὰ τὰν τῶν δύο βημάτων σύνλαξεν (λέγω τὰν ἐν τῷ ὀνόματι; χὰ τὰν ἐν τῷ ἀρθρω) ὅπερ σάλιν συαρείσετο τῶ ΚΑΙ συνδέσμω. Καιοὸν μὲν (lege TO ΚΑΙ γὰρ κοινὸν μὲν) σαρελάμδανε τὸ ὄνομα

THE Application of this SUBJUNC: Ch. V.
TIVE, like the other Pronouns, is universal. It may be the Substitute of all kinds

όνομα το σεροκείμενον, σύμπλεκον δε έτερον λόγον σάντως κὶ έτερον ράμα σαρελάμζανε, κὶ ετω τὸ, ΠΑΡΕΓΕΝΕΤΟ Ο ΓΡΑΜΜΑ-ΤΙΚΟΣ, ΟΣ ΔΙΕΛΕΞΑΤΟ, δυνάμει τον άυτον αποτελεί το (fors. TY) O FPAMMATIKOE HAPEFENETO, KAI DIEAETATO. The subjunctive Article, (that is, the Pronoun here mens tioned) is applied to a Verb of its own, and yet is connected withal to the antecedent Noun. Hence it can never serve to constitute a simple Sentence, by reason of the Syntax of the two Verbs, I mean that which respects the Noun or Antecedent, and that which respects the Article or Relative. The same too follows as to the Conjunction, AND. This Copulative assumes the antecedent Noun, which is capable of being applied to many Subjects, and by connecting to it a new Sentence, of necessity assumes a new Verb also. And hence it is that the Words—the Grammarian came, WHO discoursed-form in power nearly the same sentence, as if we were to say—the Grammarian came, and discoursed. Apoll. de Syntaxi, L. I. c. 43. p. 92. See also an ingenious French Treatise, called Grammaire generale & raisonnée, Chap. IX.

The Latins, in their Structure of this Subjunctive, seem to have well represented its compound Nature of part Pronoun, and part Connective, in forming their qui and quis from que and is, or (if we go with Scaliger to

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V. kinds of Substantives, natural, artificial, or abstract; as well as general, special, or particular. We may say, the Animal, Which, &c. the Man, Whom, &c. the Ship, Which, &c. Alexander, Who, &c. Bucephalus, That, &c. Virtue, Which, &c. &c.

NAY, it may even be the Substitute of all the other Pronouns, and is of course therefore expressive of all three Persons. Thus we say, I, who now read, have near finished this Chapter; Thou, who now readest; He, who now readeth, &c. &c.

AND thus is THIS SUBJUNCTIVE truly a Pronoun from its Substitution, there

the Greek) from KAI and 'OZ and KAI and 'O. Scal de Caus. Ling. Lat. c. 127.

Homer also expresses the Force of this Subjunctive, Pronoun or Article, by help of the Prepositive and a Conjuntive, exactly consonant to the Theory here established. See Iliad, A. ver. 270, 553. N. 571. II. 54, 157, 158.

there being no Substantive existing, in Ch. V. whose place it may not stand. At the same time, it is essentially distinguished from the other Pronouns, by this peculiar, that it is not only a Substitute, but withal a Connective (1).

G 2

AND

(1) Before we quit this Subject, it may not be improper to remark, that in the Greek and Latin Tongues the two principal Pronouns, that is to say, the First and Second Person, the Ego and the Tu, are implied in the very Form of the Verb itself (γεάρφ, γεάρως, scribo, scribis) and are for that reason never exprest, unless it be to mark a Contradistinction; such as in Virgil,

Nos patriam fugimus; Tv, Tilyre, lentus in umbra Formosam resonare doces, &c.

This however is true with respect only to the Casus rectus, or Nominative of these Pronouns, but not with respect to their oblique Cases, which must always be added, because the we see the Ego in Amo, and the Tu in Amas, we see not the Te or Me in Amat, or Amant.

Yet even these oblique Cases appear in a different manner, according as they mark Contradistinction, or not. If they contradistinguish, then are they commonly placed at the beginning of the Sentence, or at least before the Verb, or leading Substantive. Said concerning Substantives. All Sub-

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Thus Virgil,

----Quid Thesea, magnum

' Quid-memorem Alciden? Et MI genus ab Jove summo.

Thus Homer,

where the 'Tuis and the Moi stand, as contradistinguished, and both have precedence of their respective Verbs, the 'Tuis even leading the whole Sentence. In other instances, these Pronouns commonly take their place behind the Verb, as may be seen in examples every where obvious. The Greek Language went farther still. When the oblique Case of these Pronouns happened to contradistinguish, they assumed a peculiar Accent of their own, which gave them the name of deflororeminal, or Pronouns uprightly accented. When they marked no such opposition, they not only took their place behind the Verb, but even gave it their Accent, and (as it were) inclined themselves upon it. And hence they acquired the name of Eynditinal, that is, Leaning or Inclining Pronouns. The Greeks too had in the first person 'Emē, 'Emoi, 'Emi for Contradistinctives, and ME, Mol, Me for Enclitics. And. hence it was that Apollonius contended, that in the passage above quoted from the first Iliad, we shoul read கைர்கே

condary, that is to say, according to a Language more familiar and known, are either Nouns or Pronouns. The Nouns denote Substances, and those either Natural, Artificial, or Abstract*. They moreover denote Things either General, or Special, or Particular. The Pronouns, their Substitutes, are either Prepositive, or Subjunctive. The Prepositive is distinguished into three Orders, called the First, the Second, and G3 the

waida 8'EMOI, for waida di MOI, on account of the Contradistinction, which there occurs between the Grecians and Chryses. See Apoll. de Syntaxi, L. I. c. 3. p. 20. L. II. c. 2. p. 102, 103.

This Diversity between the Contradistinctive Pronouns, and the Enclitic, is not unknown even to the English Tongue. When we say, Give me Content, the (Me) in this case is a perfect Enclitic. But when we say, Give Mé Content, Give Him his thousands, the (Me) and (Him) are no Enclitics, but as they stand in opposition, assume an Accent of their own, and so become the true ighoro-topical.

^{*} See before, p. 37, 38.

ch. V. the Third Person. THE SUBJUNCTIVE includes the powers of all those three, having superadded, as of its own, the poculiar force of a Connective.

Having done with Substantives, we now proceed to Attributives.

CHAP. VI.

Concerning Attributives.

ATTRIBUTIVES are all those principal Ch. VI. Words, that denote Attributes, considered as Attributes. Such for example are the Words, Black, White, Great, Little, Wise, Eloquent, Writeth, Wrote, Writing, &c. (a).

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How-

(a) In the above list of Words are included what Grammarians called Adjectives, Verbs, and Participles, in as much as all of them equally denote the Attributes of Substance. Hence it is, that as they are all from their very nature the Predicates in a Proposition (being all predicated of some Subject or Substance. Snow is white, Ciosro writeth, &c.) hence I say the Appellation PHMA or Vers is employed by Logicians in an extended Sense to denote them all. Thus Anmonius explaining the reason, why Aristotle in his Tract de Interpretatione calls htmos & Verb, tells us mions puris, naturaginates if or is regorastic worders, 'PHMA nahaisbu, that every Sound articulate,

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However, previously to these, and to every other possible Attribute, whatever a thing may be, whether black or white, square or round, wise or eloquent, writing or thinking, it must first of necessity EXIST, before it can possibly be any thing else. For Exist-ENCE may be considered as an universal Genus, to which all things of all kinds are at all times to be referred. Verbs therefore, which denote it, claim precedence of all others, as being essential to the very being of every Proposition, in which they may still be found, either exprest, or by implication: exprest, as when we say, The Sun is bright; by implication, as when we say,

The

ticulate, that forms the Predicate in a Proposition, is called a Verb, p. 21. Edit. Ven. Priscian's observation, though made on another occasion, is very pertinent to the present. Non Declinatio, sed proprietas excutienda est significationis. L. II. p. 576. And in another place he says—non similitudo declinationis omnimodo conjungit vel discernit partes orationis inter se, sed vis ipsius significationis. L. XIII. p. 970.

The Sun rises, which means, when re- Ch. VI. solved, The Sun is rising (b).

The Verbs, Is, Groweth, Becometh, Est, Fit, ὑπάρχει ἐζὶ, πέλει, γίγνεται, are all of them used to express this general Genus. The Latins have called them Verba Substantiva, Verbs Substantive, but the Greeks 'Ρήματα 'Τπαρατικά Verbs of Existence, a Name more apt, as being of greater latitude, and comprehending equally as well Attribute, as Substance. The principal of those Verbs, and which we shall particularly here consider, is the Verb, 'Εζὶ, Est, Is.

Now all Existence is either absolute or qualified—absolute, as when we say, B is; qualified, as when we say, B is an Animal; B is black, is round, &c.

WITH

⁽b) See Metaphys. Aristot. L. V. c. 7. Edit. Du-Vall,

opposition is not of Time present to other Times, but of necessary Existence to all temporary Existence whatever (c).

And so much for Verbs of Existence, commonly called Verbs Substantive.

We are now to descend to the common Herd of Attributives, such as black and white, to write, to speak, to walk, &c. among which, when compared and opposed to each other, one of the most eminent distinctions appears to be this. Some, by being joined to a proper Substantive make with-

out

⁽c) Cum enim dicimus, Deus est, non cum dicimus nunc esse, sed tantum in Substantia esse, ut hoc ad immutabilitatem potius substantia, quam ad tempus aliquod referatur. Si autem dicimus, dies est, ad nullam dici substantiam pertinet, nisi tantum ad temporis constitutionem; hoc enim, quod significat, tale est, tanquam si dicamus, nunc est. Quare cum dicimus esse, ut substantiam designemus, simpliciter est addimus; cum vero ita ut aliquid prasens significatur, secundum Tempus. Boeth. in Lib. de Interpr. p. 307. See also Plat. Tim. p. 37, 38. Edit. Serrani.

out farther help a perfect assertive Sen-Ch. VI. tence; while the rest, tho' otherwise perfect, are in this respect deficient.

To explain by an example. we say, Cicero eloquent, Cicero wise, these are imperfect Sentences, though they denote a Substance and an Attribute. The reason is, that they want an Assertion, to shew that such Attribute appertains to such Substance. We must therefore call in the help of an Assertion elsewhere, an (18) or a (was) to complete the Sentence, saying Cicero is wise, Cicero was eloquent. On the contrary, when we say, Cicero writeth, Cicero walketh, in instances like these there is no such occasion, because the words (writeth) and (walketh) imply in their own Form not an Attribute only, but an Assertion likewise. Hence it is they may be resolved, the one into Is and Writing, the other into Is and Walking.

Now

have this complex Power of denoting-both an Attribute and an Assertion; make that Species of Words, which Grammarians call Verbs. If we resolve this complex Power into its distinct Parts, and take the Attribute alone, without the Assertion, then have we Participles. All other Attributives, besides the two Species before, are included together in the general Name of Adjectives.

AND thus it is, that ALL ATTRIBU-TIVES are either VERBS, PARTICI-PLES, OF ADJECTIVES.

Besides the Distinctions abovementioned, there are others, which deserve notice. Some Attributes have their Essence in Motion; such are to walk, to fly, to strike, to live. Others have it in the privation of Motion; such are to stop, to rest, to cease, to die. And lastly, others have it in subjects, which have nothing

nothing to do with either Motion or its Ch. VI.

Privation; such are the Attributes of,

Great and Little, White and Black,

Wise and Foolish, and in a word the several Quantities and Qualities of all

Things. Now these last are Adjectives; those which denote Motions, or their Privation, are either Verbs or Participles.

AND this Circumstance leads to a farther Distinction, which may be explained as follows. That all Motion is in Time, and therefore, wherever it exists, implies Time as its concomitant, is evident to all, and requires no proving. But besides this, all Rest or Privation of Motion implies Time likewise. For how can a thing be said to rest or stop, by being in one Place for one instant only?—so too is that thing, which moves with the greatest velocity. †To stop therefore or

⁺ Thus Proclus in the Beginning of his Treatise concerning Motion. Hermer is it is referred to use to the autitime to, the auti, the mign.

Ch. VI. rest, is to be in one Place for more thans. one Instant, that is to say, during an Ex-. tension between two Instants, and this of course gives us the idea of TIME. therefore Motions and their Privation imply Time as their concomitant, so VERBS_ which denote them, come to denote. TIME also^(d). And hence the origin and \cdot use of Tenses, " which are so many-" different forms, assigned to each Verb, " to shew, without altering its princi-" pal meaning, the various TIMES in. "which such meaning may exist."— Thus Scribit, Scripsit, Scripserat, and Scribet, denote all equally the Attribute, To Write, while the difference between them, is, that they denote Writing in different Times.

SHOULD

⁽d) The ancient Authors of Dialectic or Logic have well described this Property. The following is part of their Definition of a Verb-βημα δέ 15ὶ τὸ ωροσσημαίνον xeoror, a Verb is something, which signifies Time OVER AND ABOVE (for such is the force of the Preposition Teos.) If it should be asked, over and above what? It may be answered, over and above its principal Signification, which is to denote some moving and energizing Attribute. See Arist. de Interpret. c. 3. together with his Commentators Ammonius and Boethius.

Should it be asked, whether Time it- Ch. VI. self may not become upon occasion the Verb's principal Signification; it is answered, No. And this appears, because The same Time may be denoted by different verbs (as in the words, writeth and speaketh) and different Times by the same Verb (as in the words, writeth and wrote) neither of which could happen, were Time any thing more, than a mere Concomitant. Add to this, that when words denote Time, not collaterally, But principally, they cease to be verbs, and become either adjectives, or substantives. Of the adjective kind are Timely, Yearly, Dayly, Hourly, &c. of the substantive kind are Time, Year, Day, Hour, &c.

THE most obvious division of TIME is into Present, Past, and Future, nor is any language complete, whose Verbs have not Tenses, to mark these distinctions. But we may go still further. Time past and future are both infinitely. Н extended.

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Extended. Hence it is that in universal Time past we may assume many particular Times Times future, many particular Times future, some less remote, and considerations. Even present Time itself is not exempt from these differences, and as necessarily implies some degree of Extension, as does every given line, however minute.

Here then we are to seek for the reason, which first introduced into language that variety of Tenses. It was not it seems enough to denote indefinitely (or by Aorists) mere Present, Past, or Future, but it was necessary on many occasions to define with more precision, what kind of Past, Present, or Future. And hence the multiplicitly of Futures, Præterits, and even Present Tenses, with which all languages are found to abound, and without which it would be difficult to ascertain our Ideas.

HOWEVER.

Book the First.

However as the knowledge of Ch. VI.
Tenses depends on the Theory of
Times and this is a subject of no mean
speculation, we shall reserve it by itself
for the following chapter.

CHAP.

CHAP. VII.

Concerning Time, and Tenses.

mon, that they are both of them by nature things continuous, and as such they both of them imply Extension. Thus between London and Salisbury there is the Extension of Space, and between Yesterday and To-morrow, the Extension of Time. But in this they differ, that all the parts of Space exist at once and together, while those of Time only exist in Transition or Succession(a). Hence then we may gain some Idea of Time, by considering it under

⁽a) See Vol. I. p. 275. Note XIII. To which we may add, what is said by Ammonius—δυδὶ γὰς ὁ Χςόν Ετοθαι κὸ φίς αται, ἀλλ' ἡ κατὰ μόνον τὸ NΥΝ' ἐν γὰς τῷ γίνισθαι κὸ φθιίς ισθαι τὸ εἶναι ἔχει. Τιμε doth not subsist the whole at once, but only in a single Now or Instant; for it hath its Existence in becoming and in ceasing to be. Amm. in Predicam. p. 82. b.

under the notion of a transient Continuity. Hence also, as far as the affections and properties of Transition go,
Time is different from Space; but as to those of Extension and Continuity, they perfectly coincide.

LET us take, for example, such a part of Space, as a Line. In every given Line we may assume any where a Point, and therefore in every given Line there may be assumed infinite Points. So in every given Time we may assume any where a Now or Instant, and therefore in every given Time there may be assumed infinite Nows or Instants.

FARTHER still—A POINT is the Bound of every infinite Line; and A Now or INSTANT, of every finite Time. But altho' they are Bounds, they are neither of them Parts, neither the Point of any Line, nor the Now or Instant of any Time. If this appear strange, we H 3 may

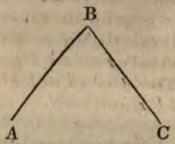
HERMES.

thing extended are necessarily extended also, it being essential to their character, that they should measure their Whole. But if a Point or Now were extended, each of them would contain within itself infinite other Points, and infinite other Nows (for these may be assumed infinitely within the minutest Extension) and this, it is evident, would be abourd and impossible.

These assertions therefore being admitted, and both Points and Nows being taken as Bounds, but not as Paris⁽⁶⁾, it

C. VII.

will follow, that in the same manner as the same Point may be the End of one Line, and the Beginning of another, so the same Now or Instant may be the End of one Time, and the Beginning of another. Let us suppose for example, the Lines, AB, BC.



I say that the Point B is the End of the Line AB, and the Beginning of the Line, BC. In the same manner let us suppose AB, BC to represent certain Times, and let B be a Now or Instant. In such case I say that the Instant B is the End of the Time AB, and the Beginning of the Time BC. I say likewise of these two Times, that with respect to the Now or Instant, which they include, the first of them is necessarily Past Time, as being previous to it;

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being subsequent. As therefore every Now or Instant always exists in Time, and without being Time, is Time's Bound; the Bound of Completion to the Past, and the Bound of Commencement to the Future: from hence we may conceive its nature or end, which is to be the Medium of Continuity, between the Past and the Future, so as to render Time, thro' all its Parts, one Inter and Perfect Whole(c).

From the above speculations, there follow some conclusions, which may be perhaps called paradoxes, till they have been

⁽c) Τὸ δὶ ΝΥΝ ὶςι συνίχεια χεόνε. ἄσπες ἐλίχθη, συνίχει γὰς τὸν χεόνον, τὸν παςελθόντα κὰ ἐσόμενον, κὰ ὁλως πέςας χεόνε ἐςίχ ἔςι γὰς τε μὲν ἀςχὴ, τε δὲ τελευτή. A Now or Instant is (as was said before) the Continuity or holding together of Time; for it makes Time continuous, the past and the future, and is in general its boundary, as being the beginning of one Time and the ending of another. Natur. 'Auscult. L. IV. c. 19. Συνίχεια in this place means not Continuity, as standing for Extension, but rather that Junction or Holding together, by which Extension is imparted to other things.

been attentively considered. In the first place there cannot (strictly speaking) be any such Thing as Time present. For if all Time be transient as well as continuous, it cannot like a Line be present all together, but part will necessarily be gone, and part be coming. If therefore any portion of its continuity were to be present at once, it would so far quit its transient nature, and be Time no longer. But if no portion of its continuity can be thus present, how can Time possibly be present, to which such Continuity is essential,

FARTHER than this—If there be no such thing as Time Present, there can be no Sensation of Time, by any one of the senses. For ALL SENSATION is of the *Present only, the Past being preserved not by Sense but by Memory, and the Future being anticipated by Prudence only and wise Foresight.

 \mathbf{B} u $\mathbf{ au}_{,}$

^{*} Ταυτή γάς (αισθήσει sc.) όυτε το μίλλου, όυτε το γιγνόμενομ γιωςίζομεν, άλλα το ωαςον μόνον. Αςις, πεςὶ Μνημ. Α. α.

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Buy if no Parties of Time be the object of any Sensation; farther, if the Present never exist; if the Past be no more; if the Future be not as yet; and if these are all the parts, out of which Time is compounded: how strange and shadowy a Being do we find it? How nearly appreaching to a perfect Non-entity (9)? Let us try however, since the senses fail us, if we have not faculties of higher power, to seize this fleeting Being.

THE World has been likened to a variety of Things, but it appears to resemble

⁽d) OTI μὶν ἔν ὅλως ἐχ ἔςιν, ἡ μόγις χὰ ἀμυδςῶς, ἐχ τῶν δὲ τις ἐκ ὑποπὶἐιστιε τὸ μὲν γὰς ἀὐθε γέγονε, κὰ ἀχ ἔςι τὸ δὲ μέλλα, κὰ ἔπω ἐςίν ἐχ δὲ τέπων κὰ ὁ ἄπεις Φ κὰ ὁ ἀιὶ λαμικανόμες κερίν Φ σύκισται τὸ δ' ἐκ μὰ ὅντων συκιέμενοι, ἀδύνατον ᾶν δόξιε κατίχειν ποτὶ ἐσίας. That therefore Time exists not at all, or at least has but a faint and obscure existence, one may suspect from hence. A part of it has been, and is no more; a part of it is coming, and is not as yet; and out of these is made that infinite Time, which is ever to be assumed still farther and farther. Now that which is made up of nothing but Non-entities, it should seem was impossible ever to participate of Entity. Natural. Ause. La IV. c. 14. See also Philop. M. S. Com, in Nicomach, p. 10.

ble no one more, than some moving C. VII. spectacle (such as a procession or a triumph) that abounds in every part with splendid objects, some of which are still departing, as fast as others make their appearance. The Senses look on. while the sight passes, perceiving as much as is immediately present, which they report with tolerable accuracy to the Soul's superior powers. Having done this, they have done their duty, being concerned with nothing, save what is present and instantaneous. But to the Memory, to the Imagination, and above all to the Intellect, the several Nows or Instants are not lost, as to the Senses, but are preserved and made objects of steady comprehension, however in their own nature they may be transitory and passing. "Now it is from contemplat-"ing two or more of these Instants un-" der one view, together with that In-"terval of Continuity, which subsists "between them, that we acquire in-" sensibly

example: The Sun rises; this I remember; it fises again; this too I remember.

These Events are not together; there is

an-

⁽e) Τότε Φαμέν γεγονέναι χρόνον, όταν τε ευροτέρε κ) υσέρε h. τη κινήσει ἄισθης τη λάβωμεν. 'Ορίζομεν δὲ τῷ ἄλλο κὰ ἄλλο ύπολαβείν ἀυτὰ, κὶ μεταξύ τι ἀυτῶν ἔτερον ὅταν γὰρ τὰ ἄκρα ἔτερε τε μέσε νοήσωμεν, κὶ δύο έιπη ή ψυχή τὰ ΝΥΝ, τὸ μέν ωρότερος τὸ δὲ υς εξον, τότε κỳ τῶτο φαμέν είναι XPONON. It is then we say there has been Time, when we can acquire a Sensation of prior and subsequent in Motion. But we distinguish and settle these two, by considering one first, then the other, together with an interval between them different from both. For as often as we conceive the Extremes to be different from the Mean, and the Soul talks of two Nows, one prior and the other subsequent, then it is we say there is Time, and this it is we call Time. Natural. Auscult. L. IV. c. Themistius's Comment upon this passage is to the same purpose. "Όταν γάς ὁ νῶς ἀναμνησθείς τῶ ΝΥΝ, ὁ χθές είπεν, έτερον σάλιν είπη το τήμερον, τότε κ) χρόνον ευθύς ένενόησεν, υπό των δύο ΝΥΝ όριζόμενον, όῖον ύπο σεςάτων δυοῖν κỳ ἕτω λέγειν έγει, ότι σοσόν έςι σεντεκάιδεκα ψέζων, η έκκαιζεκα, όιον έξ άπείευ γεαμμής τη χυαίαν δύο σημείοις άποτεμνόμεν . For when the Mind, remembering the Now, which it talked of yesterday, talks again of another Now to-day, then it is it immediately has an idea of Time, terminated by these two Nows, as by two Boundaries; and thus it is enabled to say, that the Quantity is of fifteen, or of sixteen hours, as if it were to sever a Cubit's length from an infinite Line by two Points. Themist. Op. edit. Aldi. p. 45. b.

For an Extension between them—not how- C. VII. ever of Space, for we may suppose the r. place of rising the same, or at least to Exhibit no sensible difference. Yet still we recognize some Extention between Now what is this Extention, them. but a natural Day? And what is that, but pure Time? It is after the same manner, by recognizing two new Moons, and the Extention between these: two vernal Equinoxes, and the Extention between these; that we gain Ideas of Other Times, such as Months and Years, Which are all so many Intervals, described as above; that is to say, passing Intervals of Continuity between two Instants viewed together.

AND thus it is THE MIND acquires
the Idea of TIME. But this Time it
must be remembered is PAST TIME
ONLY, which is always the first Species,
that occurs to the human intellect.
How then do we acquire the Idea of
TIME FUTURE? The answer is, we
acquire it by Anticipation. Should it
be

C. VII. be demanded still farther, And what is Anticipation? We answer, that in this case it is a kind of reasoning by analogy from similar to similar; from successions of events, that are past already, to similar successions, that are presumed For example: I observe as hereafter. far back as my memory can carry me, how every day has been succeeded by a night; that night, by another day; that day, by another night; and so downwards in order to the Day that is Hence then I anticipate a similar succession from the present Day, and thus gain the Idea of days and nights in futurity. After the same manner, by attending to the periodical returns of New and Full Moons; of Springs, Summers. Autumns and Winters, all of which in Time past I find never to have failed, I anticipate a like orderly and diversified succession, which makes Months, and Seasons, and Years, in Time future.

WE go farther than this, and not only thus anticipate in these natural Periods

riods, but even in matters of human and C. VII. ivil concern. For example: Having ibserved in many past instances how realth had succeeded to exercise, and ickness to sloth; we anticipate future realth to those, who, being now sickly, ise exercise; and future sickness to hose, who, being now healthy, are slothal. It is a variety of such observaions, all respecting one subject, which then systematized by just reasoning, nd made habitual by due practice, orm the character of a Master-Artist. r Man of practical Wisdom. If they espect the human body (as above) they orm the Physician; if matters military, he General: if matters national, the tatesman; if matters of private life, ae Moralist; and the same in other ibjects. All these several characters in neir respective ways may be said to ossess a kind of prophetic discernent, which not only presents them he barren prospect of futurity (a prosect not hid from the meanest of men) ut shews withal those events, which

c. VII. are likely to attend it, and thus enables them to act with superior certainty and rectitude. And hence it is, that (if we except those, who have had diviner assistances) we may justly say, as was said of old.

He's the best Prophet, who conjectures well. (1).

FROM

() Mártis & ágisos, ősis linágei nadüs. So Millon,

Till old Experience do attain

To something like Prophetic Strain:

Et facile existimari potest, Prudentiam esse quodam modo Divinationem.

Corn. Nep. in Vit. Attici.

There is nothing appears so clearly an object of the MIND or INTELLECT only, as the Future does, since we can find no place for its existence any where else. Not but the same, if we consider, is equally true of the Past. For though it may have once had another kind of being, when (according to common Phrase) it actually was, yet was it then something Present, and not something Past. As Past, it has no existence but in the MIND or MEMORY, since had it in fact any other, it could not properly be called Past. It was this intimate connection between TIME, and the SOUL, that made some Philosophers doubt whether if there was no Soul, there could be any Time, since Time appears to have its being in no other region. Notices of him sons 4vx7s sin as 6 x56vos, anograeus as tis, x.

From what has been reasoned it appears, that knowledge of the Future comes from knowledge of the Past; as does knowledge of the Past from knowledge of the Present, so that their Order to us is that of PRESENT, PAST, and FUTURE.

Or these Species of knowledge, that of the Present is the lowest, not only as first in perception, but as far the more extensive, being necessarily common to all animal Beings, and reaching even to Zoophytes, as far as they possess Sensation. Knowledge of the Past comes next, which is superior to the former, as being confined to those animals, that have Memory as well as Senses. Knowledge

τ. λ. Natur. Auscult. L. IV. c. 20. Themistius, who comments the above passage, expresses himself more potitively. Εἰ τοίνυν διχῶς λίγεται τότε ἐξιθμητὸν ἢ τὸ ἀξιθμέμωνον, τὸ μὲν τὸ ἀξιθμητὸν δηλαδή δυσάμει, τὸ δὶ ἐνεξυχία, ταῦτα δι ἐν ἀν ὑπος άιπ, μὰ ὅντος τὰ ἀξιθμήσοντος μήτε δυνάμει μήτε hapyria, φανιξὸν ὡς οὐκ ἀν ὁ χρόνος είπ, μὰ ὅσπς ψυχῆς. Them. p. 48. Edit. Aldi. Vid. etiam ejusd. Comm. in Lib. de An. p. 94.

C. VII. of the Future comes last, as being de
Arist. de rived from the other two, and which is

An. II. for that reason the most excellent as well

as the most rare, since Nature in her superadditions rises from worse always to
better, and is never found to sink from
better down to worse*.

AND now having seen, how we acquire the knowledge of Time past, and Time future; which is first in perception, which first in dignity; which more common, which more rare; let us compare them both to the present Now or Instant, and examine what relations they maintain towards it.

In the first place there may be *Times* both *past* and *future*, in which the *present Now* has no existence, as for example in *Yesterday*, and *To-morrow*.

AGAIN, the present Now may so far belong to Time of either sort, as to be the

^{*} See below, Note (r) of this Chapter.

BOOK THE FIRST.

the End of the past, and the Beginning C. VII. of the future; but it cannot be included within the limits of either. For if it were possible, let us suppose C the present Now included

A B C D E

within the limits of the past Time AD. In such case CD, part of the past Time AD, will be subsequent to C the present Now, and so of course be future. But by the Hypothesis it is past, and so will be both Past and Future at once, which is absurd. In the same manner we prove that C cannot be included within the limits of a future Time, such as BE.

What then shall we say of such Times, as this Day, this Month, this Year, this Century, all which include within them the present Now? They I 2 cannot

C. VII.

cannot be past Times or future, from what has been proved; and present Time has no existence, as has been proved likewise*. Or shall we allow them to be present, from the present Now, which exists within them; so that from the presence of that we call these also present, tho' the shortest among them has infinite parts always absent? If so, and in conformity to custom we allow such Times present, as present Days, Months, Years, and Centuries, each must of necessity be a compound of the Past and the Future, divided from each other by some present Now or Instant, and jointly called PRESENT, while that Now remains within them. Let us suppose for example the Time XY, which

 $f \cdots \stackrel{\mathbf{X}}{\cdot} \stackrel{\mathbf{A}}{\cdot} \stackrel{\mathbf{B}}{\cdot} \stackrel{\mathbf{C}}{\cdot} \stackrel{\mathbf{D}}{\cdot} \stackrel{\mathbf{E}}{\cdot} \stackrel{\mathbf{Y}}{\cdot} \cdots g$

let

^{*} Sup. p. 104,

let us call a Day, or a Century; and let C. VII. the present Now or Instant exist at A. I say, in as much as A exists within XY, that therefore XA is Time past, and AY Time future, and the whole XA, AY, Time Present. The same holds. if we suppose the present Now to exist at B, or C, or D, or E, or any where before Y. When the present Now exists at Y, then is the whole XY Time past, and still more so, when the Now gets to g, or onwards. In like manner before the Present Now entered X. as for example when it was at f, then was the whole XY Time future; it was the same, when the present Now was at X. When it had past that, then XY became Time present. And thus it is that TIME is PRESENT, while passing, in its PRESENT Now or Instant. It is the same indeed here, as it is in Space. Sphere passing over a Plane, and being for that reason present to it, is only present to that Plane in a single Point at

I 3

once.

HERMES.

sion its parts absent are infinite(s).

FROM what has been said, we may perceive that ALL TIME, of every denomination

L:

(2) PLACE, according to the antients, was either mediate or immediate. I am (for example) in Europe, because I am in England; in England, because in Wiltskire; in Wiltekire, because in Saliebury; in Saliebury, because in my own house; in my own house, because in my study. Thus far Mediate Place. And what is my immediate Place? It is the internal Bound of that containing Body (whatever it be) which co-incides with the external Bound of my own Body. To welly overes wiças, καθ' δ ωιριίχει τὸ ωιριιχόμετον. Now as this immediate Place is included within the limits of all the former Places, it is from this relation that those mediate Places also are called each of them my Place, tho' the least among them so far exceed my magnitude. To apply this to TIME. The Present Century is present in the present Year; that, in the present Month; that, in the present Day; that, in the present Hour; that, in the present Minute. It is thus by circumscription within circumscription that we arrive at THAT REAL AND INDI-VISIBLE INSTANT, which by being itself the rery Essence of the Present, diffuses Presence throughout all even the largest

if so, then whenever we suppose a definite Time, even though it be a Time present, it must needs have a Beginning, a Middle, and an End. And so much for Time.

Now from the above doctrine of TIME, we propose by way of Hypothesis the following Theorie of TENSES.

THE TENSES are used to mark Present, Past, and Future Time, either indefinitely without reference to any I 4 Beginning,

largest of Times, which are found to include it within their respective limits. Nicephorus Blemmides speaks much to the same purpose. Emsides we refere is in it is in in it is in in it is in in it is in in it is in it

ì

C. VII. Beginning, Middle, or End; or else definitely, in reference to such distinctions.

If indefinitely, then have we THERE TENSES, an Aorist of the Present, an Aorist of the Past, and an Aorist of the Future. If definitely, then have we three Tenses to mark the Beginnings of these three Times; three, to denote their Middles; and three to denote their Ends; in all NINE.

THE three first of these Tenses we call the Inceptive Present, the Inceptive Past, and the Inceptive Future: The three next, the Middle Present, the Middle Past, and the Middle Future. And the three last, the Completive Present, the Completive Past, and the Completive Future.

AND thus it is, that the TENSES in their natural number appear to be TWELVE:

TWELVE; three to denote Time absolute, C. VIL, and nine to denote it under its respective distinctions,

Aorist of the Present. Γράφω. Scribo. I write.

Aorist of the Past. *Εγραψα. Scripsi. I wrote,

Agrist of the Future.

Γράψω. Scribam, I shall write,

Inceptive Present. Μέλλω γράΦειν. Scripturus sum. I am

Μέλλω γράφειν. Scripturus sum. I am going to write.

Middle or extended Present, .

Τυγχάνω γράφων. Scribo or Scribens sum. I am writing.

Completive Present.
Γέγραφα. Scripsi. I have written.

Inceptive Past.

Εμελλον γράφειν. Scripturas eram. I was beginning to write.

Middle

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Middle or extended Past.

Εγραφον or ετύγχανον γράφων. Scribebam. I was writing.

Completive Past.

Έγεγρά Φειν. Scripseram. I had done writing.

Inceptive Future.

Μελλήσω γράΦειν. Scripturus ero. I shall be beginning to write.

Middle or extended Future.

εσομαι γράφων. Scribens ero. I shall be writing.

Completive Future.

"Εσομαι γεγραφώς. Scripsero. I shall have done writing.

It is not to be expected that the above Hypothesis should be justified through all instances in every language. It fares with

with Tenses, as with other affections of speech; be the Language upon the whole ever so perfect, much must be left, in defiance of all analogy, to the harsh laws of mere authority and chance.

Ir may not however be improper to inquire, what traces may be discovered in favour of this system, either in languages themselves, or in those authors who have written upon this part of Grammar, or lastly in the nature and reason of things.

In the first place, as to Aorists. Aorists are usually by Grammarians referred to the Past: such are indow, I went; intervent, I fell; &c. We seldom hear of them in the Future, and more rarely still in the Present. Yet it seems agreeable to reason, that wherever Time is signified without any farther circumscription, than that of Simple present, past, or future, the Tense is an Aorist.

THUS

C. VII.

THUS Milton,

Millions of spiritual creatures WALK the earth

Unseen, both when we wake, and when we sleep, P. L. IV. 277.

Here the verb (WALK) means not that they were walking at that instant only, when Adam spoke, but $\partial \partial G \partial G \omega G$ indefinitely, take any instant whatever. So when the same author calls Hypocrisy,

——the only Evil, that WALKS Invisible, except to God alone,

the Verb (WALKS) hath the like aoristical or indefinite application. The same may be said in general of all Sentences of the Gnomologic kind, such as

Ad pænitendum PROPERAT, cito qui judicat.

Avarus, nisi cum moritur, nil recte FACIT, &c.

ALL

ALL these Tenses are so many C. VIL AORISTS OF THE PRESENT.

Gnomologic Sentences after the same manner make likewise Aorists of The Future.

Tu nihil ADMITTES in te, formidine pana. Hor.

So too Legislative Sentences, Thou SHALT not kill, Thou SHALT not steal, &c. for this means no one particular future Time, but is a prohibition extended indefinitely to every part of Time future(h).

WE

⁽A) The Latin Tongue appears to be more than ordinarily deficient, as to the article of Aorists. It has no peculiar form even for an Aorist of the Past, and therefore (as Priscian tells us) the Prateritum is forced to do the double duty both of that Aorist, and of the perfect Present, its application in particular instances being to be gathered from the Context. Thus it is that FECI means (as the same author informs us) both withing and invince, I have done it, and I did it; VIDI both

HERMES.

C. VII. WE pass from Aorists, to THE IN-

THESE may be found in part supplied (like many other Tenses) by verbs ΜΕΛΛΩ γράφειν. auxiliar. Scripturus SUM. I AM GOING to write. But the Latins go farther, and have a species of Verbs, derived from others, which do the duty of these Tenses, and are themselves for that reason called Inchoatives or Inceptives. Thus from Caleo, I am warm, comes Calesco, I begin to grow warm; from Tumeo, I swell, comes Tumesco, I begin to swell. These Inchoative Verbs are so peculiarly appropriated to the Beginnings of Time, that they are defective as to all Tenses, which denote it in its Completion, and therefore have neither Perfectum, Plus quam-perfectum, or Perfect Future. There

both ideaxa and idea, I have just seen it, and I saw it once. Prisc. Gram. L. VIII. p. 814, 838. Edit. Putsch.

There is likewise a species of Verbs C. VII. called in Greek 'EDETINA', in Latin Desiderativa, the Desideratives or Meditatives, which if they are not strictly Inceptives, yet both in Greek and Latin have a near affinity with them. Such are πολεμησείω, Bellaturio, I have a desire to make war; βρωσείω, Esurio, I long to 'eat(i). And so much for THE INCEP-TIVE TENSES.

THE two last orders of Tenses which remain, are those we called (k) THE MIDDLE TENSES (which express Time as extended and passing) and the PERFECT

or

⁽i) As all Beginnings have reference to what is future, hence we see how properly these Verbs are formed, the Greek ones from a future Verb, the Latin from a future Participle. From πολεμήσω and βρώσω come σολιμησείω and βενσείω; from Belluturus and Esurus come Belluturio and Esurio. See Macrobius, p. 691. Ed. Var. & σώνυ γέ με νῦν δη ΓΕΛΑΣΕΙΟΝΤΑ επώνσας γελάσαι. Plato in Phædone.

⁽k) Care must be taken not to confound these middle Tenses, with the Tenses of those Verbs, which bear the same name among Grammarians.

C. VII. or COMPLETIVE, which express its Completion or End.

Now for these the authorities are many. They have been acknowledged already in the ingenious Accidence of Mr. Hoadily, and explained and confirmed by Dr. Samuel Clarke, in his rational edition of Homer's Iliad. Nay, long before either of these, we find the same scheme in Scaliger, and by him (1) ascribed to +Grocinus, as its author. The learned Gaza

(who

⁽b) Ex his percipimus Grocinum acutè admedum Tempoara divisisse, sed minus commodè. Tria enim constituit, ut nos, sed quæ bifariam secat, Perfectum & Imperfectum: sic, Præteritum imperfectum, Amabam: Præteritum perfectum, Amaveram. Rectè sanè. Et Præsens imperfectum, Amo. Recte hactenus; continuat enim amorem, neque absolvit. At Præsens perfectum, Amavi: quis hoe dicat?—De Futuro autem ut non malè sentit, ita controversum est. Futurum, inquit, imperfectum, Amabo: Perfectum, Amavero. Non malè, inquam: significat enim Amavero, amorem futurum & absolutum iri: Amabo perfectionem nullam indicat. De Caus. Ling. Lat. c. 113.

⁺ Ilis name was William Grocin, an Englishman, contemporary with Erasmus, and celebrated for his learning. He went to Florence to study under Landin, and was Professor at Oxford. Spec. Lit. Flor. p. 205.

(who was himself a Greek, and one of the ablest restorers of that language in the western world) characterizes the Tenses in nearly the same manner^(m). What Apollonius hints, is exactly consonant⁽ⁿ⁾. Priscian too advances the

same

⁽m) The Present Tense (as this author informs us in his excellent Grammar) denotes to insales on in attack is now Instant and incomplete; the Perfectum, to wagidadobos ägti, is indicate the completion of the Present; the Imperfectum, to wagalilarinor is attack to wagaxarino, the extended and incomplete part of the Past; and the Plusquam-perfectum, to wagalilarinobos wadai, is interest wagaxarinor, that which is past long ago, and is the completion of the prateritum. Gram, L. IV.

⁽n) Extribut & subbiates, ot it was expensive surtician supposed that the Perfectum doth not signify the completion of the Past, but present Completion. Apollon. L. III. c. 6. The Reason, which persuaded him to this opinion, was the application and use of the Particle &, of which he was then treating, and which, as it denoted Potentiality or Contingence, would assort (he says) with any of the passing, extended, and incomplete Tenses, but never with this Perfectum, because this implied such a complete and indefeasible existence, as never to be qualified into the nature of a Contingent.

c. VII. same doctrine from the Stoics, whose authority we esteem greater than all the rest, not only from the more early age when they lived, but from their superior skill in Philosophy, and their peculiar attachment to Dialectic, which naturally led them to great accuracy in

these Grammatical Speculations(o).

BEFORE

(o) By these Philosophers the vulgar present Tense was called THE IMPERFECT PRESENT, and the pulgar Prateritum, THE PERFECT PRESENT, than which nothing can be more consonant to the system that we favour. But let us hear Priscian, from whom we learn these facts .-PRASENS TEMPUS proprie dicitur, cujus pars jam prateriit, pars futura est. Cum enim Tempus, fluvii more, instabili volvatur cursu, vix punctum habere potest in præsenti, hoc ett, in instanti. Maxima igitur pars ejus (sicut dictum est) vel præteriit vel futura est. Unde Stoici jure moc TEMPUS PRESENS etiam IMPERFECTUM vocabant (ut dictum est) eo quod prior ejus pars, qua prateriit, transacta est, deest autem sequens, id est, futura. Ut si in medio versu dicam scribo versum, priore ejus parte scripta; cui adhuc deest extrema pars, præsenti utor verbo, dicendo, scribo versum: sed Imperfectum est, quod deest adhuc versui, quod scribatur—Ex codem igitur Prasenti nascitur oliam Perfectum. Si cnim ad finem perveniat inceptum, statim utimur PR.ETERITO PERFECTO; continuo enim, scripto

BEFORE we conclude, we shall add a C. VII. few miscellaneous observations, which will be more easily intelligible from the hypothesis here advanced, and serve withal to confirm its truth.

AND first, the Latins used their Prateritum Perfectum in some instances after a very peculiar manner, so as to imply the very reverse of the verb in its natural signification. Thus, VIXIT, signified, IS DEAD; FUIT, signified, Now IS NOT, IS NO MORE. It was in this sense that Cicero addressed the people of Rome, when he had put to death the leaders in the Catalinarian Conspiracy. He appeared in the Forum, and cried K 2 out

ad finem versu, dico, scripsi versum.—And soon after speaking of the Latin Perfectum, he says—sciendum tamen, quod Romani Preterito Perfecto non solum in re modo completa utuntur, (in quo vim habet ejus, qui apud Gracos **aseaniques vocatur, quem Stoici Teaeion. enertata nominaverunt) sed etiam pro 'Aosise accipitur, &c. Lib. VIII. p. 812, 813, 814.

C. VH. out with a loud voice, *VIXERUNT.—
So VIRGIL,

--- FUIMUS Troes, FUIT Ilium & ingens

Gloria Dardanidum—— Æn. II.

And

• So among the Romans, when in a Cause all the: Pleaders had spoken, the Cryer used to proclaim Dixemeur, i.e. they have done speaking. Ascon. Ped. in Verr. II.

§ So Tibulius speaking of certain Prodigies and evil Omens.

Hæc fuerint olim. Sed tu, jam mitis, Apollo, Prodigia indomitis merge sub æquoribus.

Eleg. II. 5. ver. 19.

Let these Events HAVE BEEN in days of old;—by Implication therefore—But HENCEFORTH let them be no more.

So Eneas in Virgil prays to Phæbus.

Hac Trojana tenus fuerit fortuna secuta.

Let Trojan Fortune (that is, adverse, like that of Troy, and its inhabitants,) HAVE so far FOLLOWED us. By implication therefore, but let it follow us no farther, Here let it end, Hic sit Finis, as Servius well observes in the place.

In which instances, by the way, mark not only the force of the *Tense*, but of the *Mood*, the Precative or Imperative, not in the *Puture* but in the Past. See p. 154, 155, 156.

And again,

C. VII.

——Locus Ardea quondam
Dictus avis, & nunc magnum manet
Ardea nomen,

*Sed fortuna fuit— Æn. VII.

THE reason of these significations is derived from THE COMPLETIVE POWER of the Tense here mentioned. We see that the periods of Nature, and of human affairs, are maintained by the reciprocal succession of Contraries. It is thus with Calm and Tempest; with Day and Night; with Prosperity and Adversity; with Glory and Ignominy; with Life and Death. Hence then, in the instances above, the completion of one contrary is put for the commencement of the other, and to say, HATH LIVED, OF HATH BEEN, has the same meaning with, is DEAD, or, is No MORE.

K 3

IT

^{*} Certus in hospitibus non est amor; errat, ut ipsi:

Cumque nihil speres firmius esse, rorr.

Epist. Ovid. Helen. Paridi. ver. 190. Sive erimus, seu nos Fata ruisse volent.

C. VII. It is remarkable in *Virgil, that he frequently joins in the same sentence this complete and perfect Present with the extended and passing Present; which proves that he considered the two, as belonging to the same species of Time, and therefore naturally formed to co-incide, with each other.

---Tibi jam brachia contrahit ardens Scorpius, & cæli justå plus parte reliquit.

G. I.

Terra tremit; fugere feræ— G. I.

Præsertim si tempestas a vertice sylvis Incubuit, glomeratque ferens incendid ventus. G. II.

illa noto citius, volucrique sagittà,

Ad terram fugit, & portu se condidit

alto.

Æn. V.

Iv

^{*} See also Spenser's Fairy Queen, B. I. C. 3. St. 19. C. 3. St. 39. C. 8. St. 9.

He hath his Shield redeem'd, and forth his sword he draws.

In the same manner he joins the C. VII. same two modifications of Time in the Past, that is to say, the complete and perfect Past with the extended and passing.

Inruerant Danai, & tectum omne tenebant. Æn. II.

Tres imbris torti radios, tres nubis aquosæ, Addiderant rutili tres ignis, & alitis austri.

Fulgores nunc terrificos, sonitumque metumque

Miscebant operi, flammisque sequacibus iras (p). Æn. VIII.

K 4

As

For thee the scorpion is now contracting his claws, and HATH ALREADY LEFT thee more than a just portion of Heaven. The Poet, from a high strain of poetic adulation, supposes the scorpion so desirous of admitting Augustus among the heavenly signs, that though he has already made him more than room enough, yet he still continues

⁽r) The intention of *Virgil* may be better seen, in rendering one or two of the above passages into *English*.

[—] Tibi jam brachia contrahit ardens Scorpius et cæli justa plus parte reliquit.

C. VII.

As to the Imperfectum, it is sometimes employed to denote what is usual and customary. Thus surgebat and scribebat signify not only, he was rising, he was writing, but upon occasion they signify, he used to rise, he used to write. The reason of this is, that whatever is customary, must be something which has been frequently repeated. But what has been frequently repeated, must needs require an Extension of Time past, and thus we fall insensibly into the Tense here mentioned.

AGAIN,

to be making him more. Here then we have two acts, one perfect, the other pending, and hence the use of the two different Tenses. Some editions read relinquit; but reliquit has the authority of the celebrated Medicean manuscript.

——Illa noto citius, volucrique sagittà, Ad terram fugit, & portu se condidit alto.

The ship, quicker than the wind, or a swift arrow, con-TINUES FLYING to land, and IS HID within the lofty harbour. We may suppose this Harbour, (like many others) to have been surrounded with high Land. Hence the Vessel, immediately on entering it, was completely hid from those spectators who had gone out to see the Ship-

race,

AGAIN, we are told by Pliny (whose C. VII. authority likewise is confirmed by many gems and marbles still extant) that the ancient painters and sculptors, when they fixed their names to their works, did it pendenti titulo, in a suspensive kind of Inscription, and employed for that purpose the Tense here mentioned. It was 'Απελλής ἐποίει, Apelles faciebat, Πολύκλειτ @ ἐποίει, Polycletus faciebat, and never exolyce or fecit. By this they imagined that they avoided the shew of arrogance, and had in case of censure an apology (as it were) prepared, since it appeared from the work itself, that it was once indeed in hand, but no pretension that it was ever finished(9).

IT

race, but yet might still continue sailing towards the shore within.

⁻⁻⁻ Inruerant Danai, & tectum omne tenebant.

The Greeks HAD ENTERED and WERE THEN POSSESsing the whole house; as much as to say, they had entered, and that was over, but their Possession continued still.

⁽⁴⁾ Plin. Nat. Hist. L. I. The first Printers (who were most of them Scholars and Critics) in imitation of the antient

C. VII.

It is remarkable that the very manner, in which the Latins derive these Tenses from one another, shews a plain reference to the system here advanced. From the passing Present come the passing Past, and Future. Scribe, Scribes bam, Scribam. From the perfect Present come the perfect Past, and Future. Scrips, Scripseram, Scripsero. And so in all instances, even where the verbalate irregular, as from Fero come Feres bam and Feram; from Tuli come Tules ram and Tulero.

We shall conclude by observing, that the Order of the Tenses, as they stand ranged by the old Grammarians, is not a fortuitous Order, but is consonant to our perceptions, in the recognition of Time, according to what we have explained

antient Artists used the same Tense. Excudebat H. Sterphanus. Excudebat Guil. Morelius. Absolvebat Joan. Benenatus, which has been followed by Dr. Taylor in his late valuable edition of Demosthenes.

plained already^(r). Hence it is, that C. VII. the Present Tense stands first; then the Past Tenses; and lastly the Future.

AND now, having seen what authorities there are for Aorists, or those Tenses, which denote Time indefinitely; and what for those Tenses, opposed to Aorists, which mark it definitely, (such as the Inceptive, the Middle, and the Completive) we here finish the subject of Time and Tenses, and proceed to consider the Verbin other Attributes, which it will be necessary to deduce from other principles.

CHAP.

⁽r) See before p. 109, 110, 111, 112, 113. Scaliger's observation upon this occasion is elegant.—Ordo autem (Temporum scil.) aliter est, quam natura eorum. Quod enim præteriit, prius est, quam quod est, itaque primo loco debere poni videbatur. Verùm, quod primo quoque tempore offertur nobis, id creat primas species in animo: quamobrem Præsens Tempus primum locum occupavit; est enim commune omnibus animalibus. Præteritum autem iis tantum, quæ memorià prædita sunt. Futurum verò etiam paucioribus, quippe quibus datum est prudentiæ officium. De Caus. Ling. Lat. c. 113. See also Senecæ Epist. 124. Mutum animal sensu comprehendit præsentia; præteritorum, &c.

CHAP. VIII.

Concerning Modes.

c. VIII. WE have observed already (a) that the Soul's leading powers are those of Perception and those of Volition, which words we have taken in their most comprehensive acceptation. We have observed also, that all Speech or Discourse is a publishing or exhibiting some part of our soul, either a certain Perception, or a certain Volition. Hence, then, according as we exhibit it either in a different part, or after a different manner, hence I say the variety of Modes or Modes (b).

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⁽a) See Chap. II.

¹⁶⁾ Gaza defines a Mode exactly consonant to this doctrine. He says it is—βέλημα, iff δι ωάθημα ψυχης, διὰ φωνης σημαινόμενοι—a Volition or Affection of the Soul, signified through some Voice or Sound articulate. Gram. L. IV. As therefore this is the nature of Modes, and Modes belong to Verbs, hence it is Apollonius observes—

IF we simply declare, or indicate something to be, or not to be, (whether a Perception or Volition it is equally the same) this constitutes that Mode called the Declarative or Indicative.

A Perception.

-Nosco crines, incanaque menta Regis Romani--- Virg. Æn. VI.

A Volition.

In nova FERT ANIMUS mutatas dicere formas

Corpora Ovid. Metam. I.

IF we do not strictly assert, as of something absolute and certain, but as of something possible only, and in the number of Contingents, this makes that Mode, which Grammarians call the POTEN-

τοις ξήμασιν ίξαιείτως ωαεάκιιται ή ψυχική διάθισις—the Soul's disposition is in an eminent degree attached to Verbs. De Synt. L. III. c. 13. Thus too Priscian: Modi sunt diversæ inclinationes Animi, quas varia consequitur Declinatio verbi. L. VIII. p. 821.

C. VIII. POTENTIAL; and which becomes on such occasions the leading Mode of the sentence.

Sed tacitus pasci si posset Corvus, HA-

Plus dapis, &c.

Hor.

Mode, but only subjoined to the Indicative. In such case, it is mostly used to denote the End, or final Cause; which End, as in human Life it is always a Contingent, and may never perhaps happen in despite of all our foresight, is therefore exprest most naturally by the Mode here mentioned. For example,

Ut JUGULENT homines, surgunt de nocte latrones. Hor.

Thieves rise by night, that they may cut mens throats.

Here that they rise, is positively asserted in the Declarative or Indicative

Mode;

₫,

Mode; but as to their cutting mens throats, this is only delivered potentially, because how truly soever it may be the End of their rising, it is still but a Contingent, that may never perhaps happen. This Mode, as often as it is in this manner subjoined, is called by Grammarians not the Potential, but the Subjunctive.

Bur it so happens, in the constitution of human affairs, that it is not always sufficient merely to declare ourselves to others. We find it often expedient, from a consciousness of our inability, to address them after a manner more interesting to ourselves, whether to have some Perception informed, or some Volition gratified. Hence then new Modes of speaking; if we interrogate, it is the Interrogative Mode; if we require, it is the REQUISITIVE. the Requisitive itself hath its subordinate Species: With respect to inferiors, it is an IMPERATIVE Mode; with respect

C. VIII. to equals and superiors, it is a PREGA-TIVE or OPTATIVE.*

AND thus have we established a variety of Modes; the Indicative or Declarative, to assert what we think certain; the Potential, for the Purposes of whatever we think Contingent; the Intermogrative, when we are doubtful, to procure us Information; and the Requisitive, to assist us in the gratification of our Volitions. The Requisitive too appears under too distinct species, either as it is Imperative to inferiors, or Precative to superiors.

 $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{s}$

^{*} It was the confounding of this Distinction, that gave rise to a Sophism of Protagoras. Homer (says he) in beginning his Iliad with—Sing, Muse, the Wrath,—When he thinks to pray, in reality commands. Ευχεσθαι εἰόμενος, ἐπιτάτίει. Aristot. Poet, c. 19. The solution is evident from the Division here established, the Grammatical form being in both cases the same.

⁽c) The Species of Modes in great measure depend on the Species of Sentences. The Stoics increased the number of Sentences far beyond the Periputetics. Besides those mentioned in Chapter 11. Note (b) they had many

As therefore all these several Modes C VIII. have their foundation in nature, so have certain

many more, as may be seen in Ammonius de Interpret. p. 4. and Diogenes Laertius, L. VII. 66. The Peripatetics (and it seems too with reason) considered all these additional Sentences as included within those, which they themselves acknowledged, and which they made to be five in number, the Vocative, the Imperative, the Interrogative, the Precative, and the Assertive.-There is no mention of a Potential Sentence, which may · De supposed to co-incide with the Assertive or Indicative. The Vocative, (which the Peripatetics called the aidos κλητικός, but the Stoics more properly προσαγοριστιxòr) was nothing more than the Form of address in point of names, titles, and epithets, with which we apply ourselves one to another. As therefore it seldom included any Verb within it, it could hardly contribute to form a verbal Mode. Ammonius and Boethius, the one a Greek Peripatetic, the other a Latin, have illustrated the Species of Sentences from Homer and Virgil, after the following manner.

'Αλλά το λόγα ωίνε ειδών, το το ΚΛΗΤΙΚΟΥ, ώς τὸ, *Ω μάκας 'Ατείιδη--κ το ΠΡΟΣΤΑΚΤΙΚΟΥ, ώς τὸ, Βάσκ' ίθι, '1ει ταχείαcertain marks or signs of them been introduced into languages, that we may

2) τε ΈΡΩΤΗΜΑΤΙΚΟΥ, ώς τὸ,

Τίς, πόθεν εἰς ἀνδρῶν;

3) τε ΈΥΚΤΙΚΟΥ, ώς τὸ,

Αι γὰς Ζεῦ τε πάτες —

χὶ ἐπὶ τάτοις, τε ᾿ΑΠΟΦΑΝΤΙΚΟΥ, καθ' ὃν ἀποφαινόμεθα περὶ ὁτομεν τῶν πραγμάτων, οἶον

— Θεοὶ δὲ τε πάντα ἴσασιν—

ἐ περὶ παντὸς, &c. Εἰς τὸ περὶ Ἑρμ. p. 4.

Boethius's Account is as follows. Perfectarum vero Orationum partes quinque sunt: Deprecativa, ut,

Jupiter omnipotens, precibus si flecteris ullis, Da deinde auxilium, Pater, atque hac omina firma.

IMPERATIVA, ut,

Vade age, Nate, voca Zephyros, & labere pennis.

INTERROGATIVA, ut,

Dic mihi, Damæta, cujum pecus?----

VOCATIVA, ut,

O! Pater, O! hominum rerumque æterna potestas.

ENUNTIATIVA, in qua Veritai vel Falsitas invenitur, ut, Principio arboribus varia est natura creandis. Boeth. in Lib. de Interp. p. 291.

/lo

be enabled by our discourse to signify them, one to another. And hence those various Modes or Moods, of which we find in common Grammars so prolix a detail, and which are in fact no more than "so many literal Forms, intended to "express these natural Distinctions (d)."

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A T. T.

In Milton the same sentences may be found, as follows. THE PRECATIVE,

-Universal Lord! be bounteous still To give us only Good-

THE IMPERATIVE,

Go then, Thou mightiest, in thy Father's might.

THE INTERROGATIVE,

Whence and what art thou, execrable Shape?

THE VOCATIVE,

——Adam, earth's hallow'd Moll,
Of God inspir'd——

THE ASSERTIVE OF ENUNCIATIVE,

The conquer'd also and enslaved by war Shall, with their Freed m lost, all virtue lose.

(d) The Greek Language, which is of all the most elegant and complete, expresses these several Modes, and C. VIII. ALL these Modes have this in common, that they exhibit some way or other the

> all distinctions of Time likewise, by an adequate number of Variations in each particular Verb. These Variations may be found, some at the beginning of the Verb, others at its ending, and consist for the most part either in multiplying or diminishing the number of Syllables, or else in lengthening or shortening their respective Quantities, which two methods are called by Grammarians the Syllabic and the Temporal. The Latin, which is but a species of Greek somewhat debased, admits in like manner a large portion of those variations, which are chiefly to be found at the Ending of its Verbs, and but rarely at their Beginning. Yet in its Deponents and Passives, it is so far defective, as to be forced to have recourse to the Auxiliar, sum. The modern Languages, which have still fewer of those Variations, have been necessitated all of them to assume two Auxiliars at least, that is to say, those which express in each Language the Verbs, Have, and Am. As to the English Tongue, it is so poor in this respect, as to admit no Variation for Modes, and only one for Time, which we apply to express an Aorist of the Past. . Thus from Write cometh Wrote; from Give, Gave; from Speak, Spake, &c. -Hence to express Time, and Modes, we are compelled to employ no less than seven Auxiliars, viz. Do, Am, Have, Shall, Will, May, and Can; which we use sometimes singly, as when we say, I am writing, I have written;

the Soul and its Affections. Their C. VIII. Peculiarities and Distinctions are in part, as follows.

THE REQUISITIVE and INTERROGA-TIVE Modes are distinguished from the Indicative and Potential, that whereas these last seldom call for a Return, to the two former it is always necessary.

IF WE COMPARE THE REQUISITIVE MODE with THE INTERROGATIVE, we shall find these also distinguished, and that not only in the Return, but in other Peculiarities.

L 3

The

ten; sometimes two together, as I have been writing, I should have written; sometimes no less than three, as I might have been lost, he could have been preserved. But for these, and all other speculations, relative to the Genius of the English Language, we refer the reader, who wishes for the most authentic information, to that excellent Treatise of the learned Dr. Lowth, intitled, A short Introduction to English Grammar.

C. VIII.

The Return to the Requisitive is sometimes made in Words, sometimes in Deeds. To the request of Dido to Eneas—

——a primâ dic, hospes, origine nobis Insidias Danâum——

the proper Return was in Words, that is, in an historical Narrative. To the Request of the unfortunate Chief-date obolum Belisario—the proper Return was in a Deed, that is, in a charitable Relief. But with respect to the Interrogative, the Return is necessarily made in Words alone, in Words, which are called a Response or Answer, and which are always actually or by implication some definitive assertive Sentence. Take Examples. Whose Verses are these?—the Return is a Sentence—These are Verses of Homer. Was Brutus a worthy Man?—the Return is a Sentence—Brutus was a worthy Man.

And hence (if we may be permitted to digress) we may perceive the near affinity

affinity of this Interrogative Mode with C. VIII. the Indicative, in which last its Response or Return is mostly made. So near indeed is this Affinity, that in these two Modes alone the Verb retains the same Form (e), nor are they otherwise distinguished, than either by the Addition or Absence of some small particle, or by some minute change in the collocation of the words, or sometimes only by a change in the Tone, or Accent (f).

L 4

But

⁽e) "Hys & weonupim δειςική γηλισις, την εγκιμίτην κατάφασικ ἀποδάλλωσα, μεθίςαται τῦ καλείσθαι δειςική—ἀναπληεωθείσα δὶ τῆς καταφάσεως, ὑποςείφω εἶς τὸ εἶναι δειςική. The Indicative Mode, of which we speak, by laying acide that Assertion, which by its nature it implies, quits the name of Indicative—when it reassumes the Assertion, it returns again to its proper Character. Apoll. de Synt. L. III. c. 21. Theodore Gaza says the same, Introd. Gram. L. IV.

O It may be observed of the Interrogative, that as often as the *Interrogation* is simple and definite, the Response may be made in almost the same Words, by converting

C. VIII. But to return to our comparison between the Interrogative Mode and the Requisitive.

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may

verting them into a sentence affirmative or negative, according as the truth is either one or the other. For example—Are these Verses of Homer?—Response—These Verses are of Homer. Are those Verses of Virgil?—Response—Those are not Verses of Virgil. And here the Artists of Language, for the sake of brevity and dispatch, have provided two Particles, to represent all such Responses; Yes, for all the affirmative; No, for all the negative.

But when the Interrogation is complex, as when we say — Are these Verses of Homer, or of Virgil?—much more, when it is indefinite, as when we say in general—Whose are these Verses?—We cannot then respond after the manner above mentioned. The Reason is, that no Interrogation can be answered by a simple Yes, or a simple No, except only those, which are themselves so simple, as of two possible answers to admit only one. Now the least complex Interrogation will admit of four Answers, two affirmative, two negative, if not, perhaps of more. The reason is, a complex Interrogation cannot subsist of less than two simple ones; each of which

BOOK THE FIRST.

THE INTERROGATIVE (in the language of Grammarians) has all Persons of both Numbers. The REQUISITIVE

or

may be separately affirmed and separately denied. instance—Are these Verses Homer's, or Virgil's? (1.) They are Homer's—(2.) They are not Homer's—(3.) They are Virgil's—(4.) They are not Virgil's—we may add, (5.) They are of neither. The indefinite Interrogations go still farther; for these may be answered by infinite affirmatives; and infinite negatives. For instance . - Whose are these Verses? We may answer affirmatively—They are Virgil's, They are Horace's, They are Ovid's, &c.—or negatively—They are not Virgil's, They are not Horace's, They are not Ovid's, and so on, either way, to infinity. How then should we learn from a single Yes, or a single No, which particular is meant among infinite Possibles? These therefore are Interrogations which must be always answered by a Sentence. Yet even here Custom has consulted for Brevity, by returning for Answer only the single essential characteristic Word, and retrenching by an Ellipsis all the rest, which rest the Interrogator is left to supply from himself. Thus when we are asked—How many right angles equal the angles of a triangle?—we answer in the short monosyllable, Two; whereas, without the Ellipsis, the answer would have been-Two right angles equal the angles of a triangle.

C. VIII. or IMPERATIVE has no first Person of the singular, and that from this plain reason, that it is equally absurd in Modes for a person to request or give commands to himself, as it is in Pronouns, for the speaker to become the subject of his own address*.

AGAIN, we may interrogate as to all Times, both Present, Past, and Future. Who was Founder of Rome? Who is King of China? Who will discover the Longitude?—But Intreating and Commanding (which are the Essence of the

The Ancients distinguished these two Species of Interrogation by different names. The simple they called Έρωτημα, Interrogatio; the complex, ωύσμα, Percontatio. Ammonius calls the first of these Έρωτησις διαλεπίκως; the other, Έρωτησις ωυσματική. See Am. in Lib. de Interpr. p. 160. Diog. Laert. VII. 66. Quinții. Inst. IX. 2.

^{*} Sup. p. 74, 75.

the Requisitive Mode) have a necessary C. VIII. respect to the Future(s) only. For indeed what have they to do with the present

(e) Apollonius's Account of the Future, implied in all Imperatives, is worth observing. 'En' yae un yountτοις ή μή γεγοιόσια ή ΠΡΟΣΤΑΕΙΣ. τα δέ μή γιτόμενα ή μή γεγονότα, ἐπιτηδειότητα δὶ ἔχοντα εἰς τὸ ἔσεσθαι, ΜΕΛΛΟΝΤΟΣ Is. A Command has respect to those things which either are not doing, or have not yet been done. But those things, which being not now doing, or having not yet been done, have a natural aptitude to exist hereafter, may be properly said to appertain to the Future. De Syntaxi, L. I. c. 36. Soon before this he says-Awarra ra σεος ακλικά είκειμένην έχει την τε μέλλοντος διάθεσιν—χηδον γές I, iou isì τὸ, 'Ο TYPANNOKTONHΣΑΣ ΤΙΜΑΣΘΩ, τῷ, ΤΙΜΗΘΗΣΕΤΑΙ, κατά την χρόνε ένκοιαν τη εκκλίσει δηλλαxès, xabè tè mès weosaulinès, tà dè égisinés. All IMPERA-TIVES have a disposition within them, which respects THE FUTURE—with regard therefore to TIME, it is the same . thing to say, LET HIM, THAT KILLS A TYRANT, BE HONOURED, or, HE, THAT KILLS ONE, SHALL BE HONOURED; the difference being only in the Mode, in as much as one is IMPERATIVE, the other Indicative or Declarative. Apoll. de Syntaxi, L. 1. c. 35. Priscian seems to allow Imperatives a share of Present Time, as well as Future. But if we attend, we shall find his Present

C. VIII. present or the past, the natures of which are immutable and necessary?

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sent to be nothing else than an immediate Future, as opposed to a more distant one. Imperativus vero Præsens & Futurum [Tempus] naturali qu'udam necessitate videtur posse accipere. Ea elenim imperamus, quæ vel in præsenti statim volumus fieri sine aliqua dilatione, vel in futuro. Lib. VIII. p. 806.

It is true the Greeks in their Imperatives admit certain Tenses of the Past, such as those of the Perfectum, and of the two Aorists. But then these Tenses, when so applied, either totally lose their temporary Character, or else are used to insinuate such a Speed of execution, that the deed should be (as it were) done in the very instant when commanded. The same difference seems to subsist between our English Imperative, Be gone, and those others of, Go, or Be going. The first (if we please) may be stiled the Imperative of the Perfectum, as calling in the very instant for the completion of our Commands: the others may be stiled Imperatives of the Future, as allowing a reasonable time to begin first, and finish afterwards.

It is thus Apollonius, in the Chapter first cited, distinguishes between σκαπλίτω τὰς ἀμπίλυς, Go to digging the Vines, and σκαψάτω τὰς ἀμπίλυς, Got the Vines dug.

The

It is from this connection of Futurity C. VIII
with Commands, that the Future Indicative is sometimes used for the Imperative,
and that to say to any one, You shall
no this, has often the same force with
the Imperative, Do this. So in the
Decalogue—Thou shalt not kill
—Thou shalt not bear false
WITNESS

The first is spoken (as he calls it) is wagaraon, by way of Extension, or allowance of Time for the work; the second, ils συντιλείωση, with a view to immediate Completion. And in another place, explaining the difference between the same Tenses, Examile and Example, he says of the last, & μόνον το μή γενόμενον ωροστάσσει, άλλα κ, το γινόpero de wagarace awayogice, that it not only commands something which has not been yet done, but forbids also That, which is now doing in an Extension, that is to say, in a slow and lengthened progress. Hence, if a man has been a long while writing, and we are willing to hasten him, it would be wrong to say in Greek, IPADE, WRITE (for that he is now, and has been long doing) but IPATON, GET YOUR WRITING DONE; MAKE NO DELAYS. Apoll. L. III. c. 24. See also Macrobius de Diff. Verb. Græc. & Lat. p. 680. Edit. Varior. Latini non æstimaverunt, &c.

c. VIII. witness—which denote (we know) the strictest and most authoritative Commands.

As to the POTENTIAL MODE, it is distinguished from all the rest, by its subordinate or subjunctive Nature. It is also farther distinguished from the Requisitive and Interrogative, by implying a kind of feeble and weak Assertion, and so becoming in some degree susceptible of Truth and Falshood. Thus, if it be said potentially, This may be, or, This might have been, we may remark without absurdity, It is true, or It is false. But if it be said, Do this, meaning, Fly to Heaven, or, Can this be done? meaning, to square the Circle, we cannot say in either case, it is true or it is false, though the Command and the Question are about things impossible. Yet still the Potential does not aspire to the Indicative, because it implies but a dubious and conjectural Assertion, whereas that

of the Indicative is absolute, and with- C. VIII out reserve.

This therefore (the Indicative I mean) is the Mode, which, as in all Grammars it is the first in order, so is. truly first both in dignity and use. is this, which publishes our sublimest perceptions; which exhibits the Soul in her purest Energies, superior to the Imperfections of desires and wants; which includes the whole of Time, and its minutest distinctions; which, in its various Past Tenses, is employed by History, to preserve to us the remembrance of former Events: in its Futures is used by Prophecy, or (in default of this) by wise Foresight, to instruct and forewarn us, as to that which is coming: but above all in its Present Tense serves Philosophy and the Sciences, by just Demonstrations to establish necessary Truth; THAT TRUTH, which from its nature only exists in the Present; which knows

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of Future, but is every where, and always invariably one (h).

Тивочен

(h) See the quotation, Note (c) Chapter the Sixth. Cum enim dicimus, Deus est, non eum dicimus nunc esse, sed, &c.

Boethius, author of the sentiment there quoted, was by birth a Roman of the first quality; by religion, a Christian; and by philosophy, a Platonic and Peripatetic; which two Sects, as they sprang from the same Source, were in the latter ages of antiquity commonly adopted by the same Persons, such as Themistius, Porphyry, Iamblichus, Ammonius, and others. There were no Sects of Philosophy, that lay greater Stress on the distinction between things existing in Time and not in Time, than the two above-mentioned. The Doctrine of the Peripatetics on this Subject (since it is these that Boethius here follows) may be partly understood from the following Sketch.

Emp.)

"The THINGS, THAT EXIST IN TIME, are their whose Existence Time can measure. But if their Existence may be measured by Time, then there may be assumed a Time greater than the Existence of any one of them, as there may be assumed a number greater than the greatest multitude, that is

" capable

Through'all the above Modes, with C. VIII. their respective Tenses, the Verb being

con-

capable of being numbered. And hence it is that things temporary have their Existence, as it were in " mited by Time; that they are confined within it, as within some bound; and that in some degree or other 44 they all submit to its power, according to those com-" mon Phrases, that Time is a destroyer; that things de-4 cay through Time; that men forget in Time, and lose their abilities, and soldom that they improve, or grow. 46 young, or beautiful. The truth indeed is, Time always " attends Motion. Now the natural effect of Motion is "to put something, which now is, out of that state, in " which it now is, and so far therefore to destroy that « state.

"The reverse of all this holds with THINGS THAT EXIST " ETERNALLY. These exist not in Time, because Time is so far from being able to measure their Existence, " that no Time can be assumed, which their existence doth " not surpass. To which we may add, that they feel "none of its effects, being no way obnoxious either to " damage or dissolution.

"To instance in examples of either kind of Being.— "There are such things at this instant, as Stonehenge 46 and the Pyramids. It is likewise true at this instant, "that the Diameter of the square is commensurable with "its side. What then shall we say? Was there ever a M

considered as denoting an ATTRIBUTE, has always reference to some Person, or Substance. Thus if we say, Went, or, Go, or Whither goeth, or, Might have gone, we must add a Person or Substance, to make the Sentence complete. Cicero went; Cæsar might have gone; whither goeth the Wind? Go! Thou Traitor! But there is a Mode or Form, under which Verbs sometimes appear, where they have no reference at all to Persons or Substances. For example—To cat is pleasant;

[&]quot;Time, when it was not incommensurable, as it is certain there was a Time, when there was no Stonehenge,
or Pyramids? or is it daily growing less incommensurable, as we are assured of Decays in both those
massy Structures?" From these unchangeable Truths,
we may pass to their Place, or Region; to the unceasing
Intellection of the universal Mind, ever perfect, everfull,
knowing no remissions, languors, syc. See Nat. Ausc.
L. IV. c. 19. Metaph. L. XIV. c. 6, 7, 8, 9, 10. Edit.
Du Val. and Vol. I. p. 262. Note VII. The following
Passage may deserve Attention.

Τοῦ γὰς Νοῦ ὁ μὲν νοεῖν πέφυκεν, κỳ μὴ νοῶν ὁ δὲ κỳ, πέφυκε, κỳ νοεῖ. ἀλλα κỳ ἔυτος διπω τέλευς, ἀν μὴ περοσθῆς ἀυτῶ τὸ κỳ νοεῖν ὰ ἐλὶ, κỳ πάντα νοεῖν κỳ μὴ άλλοτε ἄλλα. ὡς ε εἴν, ἀν ἐντελές ατος ὁ νοῶν ἀεὶ κỳ πάντα, κỳ ἄμα. Μακ. Τyr. Diss. XVII. p. 201. Ed. Lond.

pleasant; but to fast is wholesome. Here C. VIII. the Verbs Toeat, and, To fast, stand alone by themselves, nor is it requisite or even practicable to prefix a Person or Substance. Hence the Latin and modern Grammarians have called Verbs under this Mode, from this their indefinite nature, INFINITIVES. Sanctius has given them the name of Impersonals; and the Greeks that of AπαρέμΦατα, from the same reason of their not discovering either Person or Number.

These Infinitives go farther.—
They not only lay aside the character of Attributives, but they also assume that of Substantives, and as such themselves become distinguished with their several Attributes. Thus in the instance above, Pleasant is the Attribute, attending the Infinitive, To Eat; Wholesome the attribute attending the Infinitive, To Fast.

Examples in Greek and Latin of like kind are innumerable.

Dulce

C. VIII.

Dulce & decorum est pro patria MORI. Scire tuum nihil est----

'Θυ κατθανεῖν γὰς δεινὸν, ἀλλ' ἀισχοῶς. Βανεῖνί).

THE Stoics in their grammatical inquiries had this Infinitive in such esteem, that

(i) It is from the Infinitive thus participating the nature of a Noun or Substantive, that the best Grammarians have called it sometimes "Ονομα βηματικόν, A VERBAL NOUN; sometimes "Ονομα βήματος, THE VERB'S NOUN.— The Reason of this Appellation is in Greek more evident, from its taking the prepositive Article before it in all cases; τὸ γεάφιν, τῷ γεάφιν, τῷ γεάφιν. The same construction is not unknown in English.

Thus Spenser,

For not to have been dipt in Lethe lake, Could save the son of Thetis from to die-

and το θανείν. In like manner we say, He did it, to be rich, where we must supply by an Ellipsis the Preposition, For. He did it, for to be rich, the same as if we had said, He did it for gain— ένεκα το ωλετείν, ένεκα το κέρωω— in French, pour s'enricher. Even when we speak such Sentences, as the following, I choose το philosophise, rather than το be rich, τὸ φιλοσοφείν βύλομαι, τατες τὸ ωλετείν, the Infinitives are in nature as much Accusatives, as if we were to say, I choose Philosophy rather than

that they held this alone to be the ge- C. VIII. nuine PHMA or VERB, a name, which they denied to all the other Modes. Their reasoning was, they considered the true verbal character to be contained simple and unmixed in the Infinitive only. Thus the Infinitives Περιπατεΐν, Ambulare, To walk, mean simply that energy, and nothing more. The other Modes, besides expressing this energy, superadd certain Affections, which respect persons and circumstances. Thus Ambulo and Ambula mean not simply To walk, but mean, I walk, and, Walk Thou. And hence

than RICHES, την φιλοσοφίαι βύλομαι, ήπις τον ωλύτον. Thus too Priscian, speaking of Infinitives—Currene enim est Cursus; & Scribere, Scriptura; & Legere. Lectic. Itaque frequenter & Nominibus adjunguntur, & aliis casualibus, more Nominum; ut Persius,

Sed pulcrum est digito monstrari, & disier, hic est.

And soon after—Cum enim dico, Bonum est Legere, nihil aliud significo, nisi, Bona est Lectio. L. XVIII. p. 1130. See also Apoll. L. I. c. 8. Gaza Gram. L. IV. Τὸ δὶ ἀπαείμφατον, ὅνομαὶ ἐςι ῥήματος κ. τ. λ. C. VIII. hence they are all of them resolvable into the Infinitive, as their Prototype, together with some sentence or word, expressive of their proper Character. bulo, I walk; this is, Indico me ambulare, I declare myself to walk. . Ambula, Walk Thou; that is, Impero te ambulare, I command thee to walk; and so with the Modes of every other species. away therefore the Assertion, the Command, or whatever else gives a Character to any one of these Modes, and there remains nothing more than THE MERE Infinitive, which (as Priscian says) significat ipsam rem, quam continet Ver $bum^{(k)}$.

Tur

⁽k) See Apollon. I. III. 13. Καθόλε τῶν τας τγιώνον από τινος κ. τ. λ. See also Gaza, in the note before. Igitur a Constructione quoque Vim rei Verborum (idest, Nominis, quod significat ipsam rem) habere Infinitivum possumus dignoscere; res autem in Personas distributa facit alios verbi motus.—Itaque omnes modi in hune, idest. Infinitivum, transumuntur sive resolvuntur. Prisc. I. XVIII. p. 1131. From these Principles Apollonius calls the Infinitive Pράμα γενικώτατον, and Priscian, Verbungenerale.

THE application of this infinitive is C.V. somewhat singular. It naturally coalesces with all those Verbs that denote any Tendence, Desire, or Volition of the Soul, but not readily with others. Thus it is sense as well as syntax, to say βέλομαι ζην, Cupio vivere, I desire to live; but not to say Ἐτθίω ζῶν, Edo vivere, or even in English, I eat to live, unless by an Ellipsis, instead of I eat for to live: as we say ένεκα τε ζην, or pour vivre. The reason is, that though different Actions may unite in the same Subject, and therefore be coupled together (as when we say, He walked and discoursed) yet the Actions notwithstanding remain separate and distinct. But it is not so with respect to Volitions, and Actions. Here the coalescence is often so intimate, that the Volition is unintelligible, till the Action be exprest. Cupio, Volo, Desidero-I desire, I am willing, I want-What?—The sentences, we see, are defective and imperfect. We must help them then by Infinitives, which express M 4

C. VIII. the proper actions to which they tend.

Cupio legere, Volo discere, Desidero videre, I desire to read, I am willing to live,

I want to see. Thus is the whole rendered complete, as well in sentiment as in syntax(1)

AND so much for Modes, and their several Species. We are to attempt to denominate them according to their most eminent characters; it may be done in the following manner. As every necessary truth, and every demonstrative syllogism (which last is no more than a combination of such truths) must always be exprest under positive assertions, and as positive assertions only belong

(1) Priscian calls these Verbs, which naturally precede Infinitives, Verba Voluntativa; they are called in Greek Recaign rad. See L. XVIII. 1129. but more particularly see Apollonius, L. III. c. 13. where this whole doctrine is explained with great Accuracy. See also Macrobius de Diff. Verb. Gr. & Lat. p. 685. Ed. Var.

⁻Nec omne àmaginque ouicunque Verbo, &c.

to the Indicative, we may denominate it for that reason the Mode of Science. Again, as the Potential is only conversant about Contingents, of which we cannot say with certainty that they will happen or not, we may call this Mode the Mode of Conjecture.—Again, as those that are ignorant and would be informed, must ask of those that already know, this being the natural way of becoming Proficients; hence we may call the Interrogative, the Mode of Proficiency.

Inter cuncta leges, & PERCONTABERE doctos,

Qu'il ratione que as traducere leniter ævum, Quid purè tranquillet, &c. Hor.

Farther still, as the highest and most excellent use of the Requisitive Mode is legis-

⁽m) Ob nobilitatem prairit INDICATIVUS, solus Modus aptus Scientiis, solus Pater Veritatis. Scal. de Caus. L. Lat. c. 116.

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C. VIII. legislative command, we may stile it for this reason the Mode of Legisla-TURE. Ad Divos adeunto caste, says Cicero in the character of a Roman lawgiver; Be it therefore enacted, say the laws of England; and in the same Mode speak the laws of every other nation, It is also in this Mode that the geometrician, with the authority of a legislator, orders lines to be bisected, and circles described, as preparatives to that science, which he is about to establish,

> THERE are other supposed affections of Verbs, such as Number and Person. But these surely cannot be called a part of their essence, nor indeed are they the essence of any other Attribute, being in fact the properties, not of Attributes, but of Substances. The most that can be said, is, that Verbs in the more elegant languages are provided with certain terminations, which respect the Number and Person of every Substantive, that

that we may know with more precision, in a complex sentence, each particular substance, with its attendant verbal Attributes. The same may be said of Sex, with respect to Adjectives. They have terminations which vary, as they respect Beings male or female, tho' Substances past dispute are alone susceptible of sex(n). We therefore pass over these matters,

⁽N) It is somewhat extraordinary, that so acute and rational a Grammarian as Sanctius, should justly deny Genders, or the distinction of Sex to Adjectives, and yet make Persons appertain, not to Substantives, but to Verbs. His commentator Perizonius is much more consistent, who says-At vero si rem rectè consideres, ipsis Nominibus & Pronominibus vel maxime, imò unice inest ipsa Persona; & Verba se habent in Personarum ratione ad Nomina planè sicuti Adjectiva in ratione Generum ad Substantiva, quibus solis autor (Sanctius scil. L. I. c. 7.) & recte Genus adscribit, exclusis Adjectivis. Sanct. Minery, L. I. c. 12. There is indeed an exact Analogy between the Accidents of Sex and Person. There are but two Sexes, that is to say, the Male and the Female; and but two Persons (or Characters essential to discourse) that is to say, the Speaker, and the Party addressed .-The third Sex and third Person are improperly so called, being in fact but Negations of the other two.

ther among the elegancies, than the essentials (**) of language, which essentials are the subject of our present inquiry. The principal of these now remaining is THE DIFFERENCE OF VERBS, AS TO THEIR SEVERAL SPECIES, which we endeavour to explain in the following manner.

⁽w Whoever would see more upon a subject of importance, referred to in many parts of this treatise, and particularly in note (h) of this chapter, may consult Letters concerning Mind, an Octavo Volume published 1750, the Author Mr. John Petvin, Vicar of Rsington in Devon, a person who, though from his retired situation little known, was deeply skilled in the Philosophy both of the Antients and Moderns, and, more than this, was valued by all that knew him for his virtue and worth.

CHAP. IX.

Concerning the Species of Verbs, and their other remaining Properties.

ALL Verbs, that are strictly so called denote (a) Energies. Now as all Energies are Attributes, they have reference of course to certain energizing Substances.

Thus it is impossible there should be such Energies, as To love, to fly, to wound, &c. if there were not such beings as Men, Birds, Swords, &c. Farther, every Energy doth not only require an Energizer, but is necessarily conversant about some Subject. For example, if we say, Brutus loves—we must needs supply—loves

⁽a) We use this word ENERGY, rather than Motion, from its more comprehensive meaning; it being a sort of Genus, which includes within it both Motion and its Privation. See before, p. 94, 95.

Ch. IX. loves Cato, Cassius, Portia, or some one. .The Sword wounds-i. e. wounds Hector. Sarpedon, Priam, or some one. thus is it, that every Energy is necessarily situate between two Substantives. an Energizer which is active, and a Subject which is passive. Hence then, if the Energizer lead the sentence, the Energy follows its character, and becomes what we call A VERB ACTIVE .-Thus we say Brutus amat, Brutus loves. On the contrary, if the passive Subject be principal, it follows the character of this too, and then becomes what we call A VERB PASSIVE. Thus we say, Portia amatur, Portia is loved. It is in like manner that the same Road between the summit and foot of the same mountain. with respect to the summit is Ascent, with respect to the foot is Descent .-Since then every Energy respects an Energizer, or a passive Subject; hence the Reason why every Verb, whether active or passive, has in language a ne-

BOOK THE FIRST.

cessary reference to some Noun for its Ch. IX. Nominative Case^(l).

But to proceed still farther from what has been already observed. Brutus loved Portia.—Here Brutus is the Energizer; loved, the Energy; and Portia, the Subject. But it might have been, Brutus loved Cato, or Cassius, or the Roman Republic; for the Energy is referable to Subjects infinite. Now among these infinite Subjects, when that happens to occur, which is the Energizer also, as when we say Brutus loved himself, slew himself, &c. in such Case the Energy hath to the same being a double Relation, both active and passive. And this it is which gave rise among the Greeks

⁽b) The doctrine of Impersonal Verbs has been justly rejected by the best Grammarians, both antient and modern. See Sanct. Min. L. I. c. 12. L. III. c. 1. L. IV. c. 3. Priscian. L. XVIII. p. 1134. Apoll. L. III. sub. fin. In which places the reader will see a proper Nominative supplied to all Verbs of this supposed character.

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Ch. IX. Greeks to that species of Verbs, called Verbs middle(c), and such was their true and original use, however in many instances they may have since happened to deviate. In other languages the Verb still retains its active Form, and the passive Subject (se or himself) is expressed like other accusatives.

AGAIN, in some Verbs it happens that the Energy always keeps within the Energizer, and never passes out to any foreign extraneous Subject. Thus when we say, Casar walketh, Casar sitteth, it is impossible the Energy should pass out

⁽c) Τὰ γὰς καλέμινα μισότητος χήματα συιμπθωσιν ἀνεδίξατο ἐνιεγετικῆς κὰ παθητικῆς διαθέσεως. The Verbs, called Verbs middle, admit a Coincidence of the active and passive Character. Apollon. L. III. c. 7. He that would see this whole Doctrine concerning the power of the MIDDLE VERB explained and confirmed with great Ingenity and Learning, may consult a small Treatise of that able Critic Kuster, entitled, De Vero Usu Verborum Mediorum. A neat edition of this scarce piece has been lately published.

out (as in the Case of those Verbs called Ch. IX. by the Grammarians VERBS TRANSI-TIVE) because both the Energizer and the Passive Subject are united in the same Person. For what is the cause of this walking or sitting?-It is the Will and Vital Powers belonging to Casar. And what is the Subject, made so to move or to sit?-It is the Body and Limbs belonging also to the same Casar. It is this then forms that species of Verbs, which grammarians have thought fit to call VERBS NEUTER, as if indeed they were void both of Action and Passion, when perhaps (like Verbs middle) they may be rather said to imply both. Not however to dispute about Names, as these Neuters in their Energizer always discover their passive Subject(c), which other Verbs

It

⁽c) This Character of Neuters the Greeks very happily express by the Terms, 'Αυτοπάθεια and 'Ιδιοπάθεια, which Priscian renders quæ ex se in scipsh fit intrinsecus Passio. L. VIII. 790. Consentii Ars apud Putsch. p. 2051.

Verbs cannot, their passive Subjects being infinite; hence the reason why it is as superfluous in these Neuters to have the Subject expressed, as in other Verbs it is necessary, and cannot be omitted. And thus it is that we are taught in common grammars that Verbs Active require

It may be here observed, that even these Verbs, called Actives, can upon occasion lay aside their transitive character; that is to say, can drop their subsequent Accusative, and assume the Form of Neuters, so as to stand by themselves. This happens, when the Discourse respects the mere Energy or Affection only, and has no regard to the Subject, be it this thing or that. Thus we say, in the Subject, be it this thing or that. Thus we say, in all and analyses are supposed him deficient. Had the Discourse been upon the Subjects of reading, we must have added them, in older analyses are outliness, the knows not how to read Homer, or Virgil, of Cicero, &c.

Thus Horace,

Qui curit aut meruit, juvat illum sic domus aut res, Ut lippum pictæ tabulæ----

He that DESIRES or FEARS (not this thing in particular wor that, but in general he within whose breast these affections require an Accusative, while Neuters re- Ch. IX. quire none.

Or the above species of Verbs, the Middle cannot be called necessary, because most languages have done without it. The Species of Verbs therefore remaining are the Active, the Passive and the Neuter, and those seem essential to all languages whatever^(d).

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THERE

affections prevail) has the same joy in a House or Estate, as the Man with bad Eyes has in fine Pictures. So Casar in his celebrated Laconic Epistle of, Veni, Vidi, Vidi, where two Actives we see follow one Neuter in the same detached Form, as that Neuter itself. The Glory it seems was in the rapid Sequel of the Events. Conquest came as quick, as he could come himself, and look about him. Whom he saw, and whom he conquered, was not the thing, of which he boasted. See Apoll. L. III. c. 31. p. 279.

(d) The Stores, in their logical view of Verbs, as making part in Propositions, considered them under the four following Sorts.

When

Ch. IX.

THERE remains a remark or two farther, and then we quit the Subject of Verbs. It is true in general that the greater part of them denote Attributes of Energy and Motion. But there are some which appear to denote nothing more.

When a Verb, co-inciding with the Nominative of some Noun, made without farther help a perfect assertive Sentence, as Σωκςάτης ωιροπατεί, Socrates walketh; then as the Verb in such case implied the Power of a perfect Predicate, they called it for that reason Κατηγόσημα, a Predicable, or else, from its readiness συμθάπω, to co-incide with its Noun in completing the Sentence, they called it Σύμβαμα, a Co-incider.

When a Verb was able with a Noun to form a perfect assertive Sentence, yet could not associate with such Noun, but under some oblique Case, as Σωκράτει μεταμίλει Socratem pænitet: Such a Verb, from its near approach to just Co-incidence, and Predication, they called Παρασύμ- Caμα or Παρακατηγόρημα.

When a Verb, though regularly co-inciding with a Noun in its Nominative, still required, to complete the Sentiment, some other Noun under an oblique Case, as Πλάτων φιλεῖ Δίωνα, Plato loveth Dio (where without Dio or some other, the Verb loveth would rest indefinite:) Such Verb, from

more, than a mere simple Adjective, joined Ch. IX. to an Assertion. Thus ἐσάζει in Greek, and Equalleth in English, mean nothing more than ἔσός ἐζι, is equal. So Albeo in Latin is no more than albus sum.

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from this Defect, they called πτον π σύμδαμα, οτ π κατηγόςημα, something less than a Co-incider, or less than a Predicable.

Lastly, when a Verb required two Nouns in oblique Cases, to render the Sentiment complete; as when we say Σωκράτει Αλκιδιάδες μίλει, Tædet me Vitæ, or the like: Such Verb they called πτίον, οτ ἴλατίον ἡ ωαρασύμδαμα, οτ ἡ ωαρακατηγόρημα, something less than an imperfect Co-incider, or an imperfect Predicable.

These were the Appellations which they gave to Verbs, when employed along with Nouns, to the forming of Propositions. As to the Name of PHMA, or Verb, they denied it to them all, giving it only to the Infinitive, as we have shewn already. See page 164. See also Ammon. in Lib. de Interpret. p. 37. Apollon. de Syntaxi, L. 1. c. 8. L. III. c. 31. p. 279. c. 32. p. 295. Theod, Gaz. Gram. L. IV.

From the above Doctrine it appears, that all Verbs Neuter are Συμβάμαλα; Verbs Active, ήτλονα η συμβάμαλα.

CHAP. X.

Concerning those other Attributes, Participles and Adjectives.

Ch. X. THE nature of Verbs being under stood, that of PARTICIPLES is no way difficult. Every complete Verb is expressive of an Attribute; of Time; and of an Assertion. Now if we take away the Assertion, and thus destroy the Verb, there will remain the Attribute and the Time, which make the essence of a PAR-TICIPLE. Thus take away the Assertion from the Verb, ΓράΦει, Writeth, and there remains the Participle, Todow, Writing, which (without the Assertion) denotes the same Attribute, and the same Time. After the same manner, by withdrawing the Assertion, we discover Γράψας in "Εγραψε, Γράψων in Γράψει, for we chuse to refer to the Greek, as being of all languages the most complete, as Ch. X. well in this respect, as in others.

And so much for Participles.

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(e) The Latins are defective in this Article of Participles. Their Active Verbs, ending in or, (commonly called Deponents) have Active Participles of all Times (such as Loquens, Locutus, Locuturus) but none of the Passive. Their Actives ending in O, have Participles of the Present and Future (such as Scribens, and Scripturus). but none of the Past. On the contrary, their Passives have Participles of the Past (such as Scriptus) but none of the Present or Future, unless we admit such as Scribendus and Docendus for Futures, which Grammarians controvert. The want of these Participles they supply by a Periphrasis—for yealas they say cum scripsisset—for γεαφόμετος dum scribitur, &c. In English we have some-. times recourse to the same Periphrasis; and sometimes we avail ourselves of the same Auxiliars, which form our Modes and Tenses.

The English Grammar lays down a good rule with respect to its Participles of the Past, that they all terminate in D, T, or N. This Analogy is perhaps liable to as few Exceptions as any. Considering therefore how little Analogy of any kind we have in our Language, it seems

Ch. X.

THE nature of Verbs and Participles being understood, that of ADJECTIVES becomes easy. A Verb implies (as we have said) both an Attribute, and Time, and an Assertion; a Participle only implies an Attribute, and Time, and an ADJECTIVE only implies an Attribute; that is to say, in other Words, an Ap-JECTIVE has no Assertion, and only denotes such an Attribute, as has not its essence either in Motion or its Privation .-Thus in general the Attributes of quantity, quality, and relation (such as many and few, great and little, black and white, good and bad, double, treble, quadras pte,

seems wrong to annihilate the few Traces, that may be found. It would be well therefore, if all writers, who, endeavour to be accurate, would be careful to avoid a corruption, at present so prevalent, officiaring, it was wrote, for, it was written; he was drove, for, he was driven; I have went, for, I have gone, &c. in all which instances a Verb is absurdly word, to supply the proper Participle, without any necessary from the want of such Word.

ple, &c.) are all denoted by ADJEC- Ch. X.

IT must indeed be confessed, that sometimes even those Attributes, which are wholly foreign to the idea of Motion, assume an assertion, and appear as Verbs. Of such we gave instances before, in albeo, tumeo, loasa, and others. These however, compared to the rest of Verbs, are but few in number, and may be called, if thought proper, Verbal Adjectives. It is in like manner, that Participles insensibly pass too into Adjectives. Thus doctus, in Latin, and learned in English, lose their power, as Participles, and mean a Person possessed of an habitual Quality. Thus Vir eloquens means not a man now speaking, but a man who possesses the habit of speaking, whether he speak or no. So when we say in English, he is a thinking Man, an understanding Man, we mean not a person, whose mind is in actual

riched with a larger portion of those powers. It is indeed no wonder, as all Attributives are homogeneous, that at times the several species should appear to interfere, and the difference between them be scarcely perceptible. Even in natural species, which are congenial and of kin, the specific difference is not always to be discerned, and in appearance at least they seem to run into each other.

We have shewn already (b) in the Instances of Φιλιππίζειν, Syllaturire, Αποκαισαρωθήναι, and others, how Substantives may be transformed into Verbat Attributives. We shall now shew, how they may be converted into Adjectives. When we say the party of Rompey, the stile of Cicero, the philosophy of Societates.

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crates, in these cases the party, the stile, and the philosophy spoken of, receive a stamp and character from the persons, whom they respect. Those persons therefore perform the part of Attributes, that is, stamp and characterize their respective Subjects. Hence then they actually pass into Attributes, and assume, as such, the form of Adjectives. thus it is we say, the Pompeian party, the Ciceronian stile, and the Socratic philosophy. It is in like manner for a trumpet of Brass, we say, a brazen Trumpet; for a Crown of Gold, a golden Crown, &c. Even Pronominal Substantives admit the like mutation. instead of saying, the Book of Me, of Thee, and of Him, we say, My Book, Thy Book, and His Book; instead of saying the Country of Us, of You, and of Them, we say Our Country, Your Country, and Their Country, which Words may be called so many Pronominal Adjectives.

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It has been observed already, and must reeds be obvious to all, that Adjectives, as marking Attributes, can have no sex(c). And yet their having terminations conformable to the sex, number, and case of their Substantive, seems to have led grammarians into that strange absurdity of ranging them with Nouns, and separating them from Verbs, tho' with respect to these they are perfectly homogeneous; with respect to the others, quite contrary. They are homogeneous with respect to Verbs, as both sorts denote Attributes; they are heterogeneous with respect to Nouns, as never properly denoting Substances .-But of this we have spoken before(d).

THE Attributives hitherto treated, that is to say, VERBS, PARTICIPLES, and

⁽c) Sup. p. 171.

⁽⁴⁾ Sup. C. VI. Note (a). See also C. III. p. 28, &c.

and Adjectives, may be called Attri-Ch. X.
BUTIVES OF THE FIRST ORDER. The
reason of this name will be better understood, when we have more fully discussed Attributives of the second Order, to which we now proceed in the following chapter.

CHAP.

CHAP. XI.

AND YOUR DESIGNATION

Concerning Attributives of the second Order.

Ch. XI. AS the Attributives hitherto mentioned denote the Attributes of Substances, so there is an inferior class of them, which denote the Attributes only of Attributes.

To explain by examples in either kind—when we say, Cicero and Pliny were both of them eloquent; Statius and Virgil both of them wrote; in these instances the Attributives eloquent, and wrote, are immediately referable to the substantives, Cicero, Virgil, &c. As therefore denoting the Attributes of Substances, we call them Attributives of the first Order. But when we say Pliny was moderately eloquent, but Cicero exceedingly eloquent; Statius wrote indifferently, but Virgil wrote

Attributives, Moderately, Exceedingly, Indifferently, Admirably, are not referable to Substantives, but to other Attributives, that is, to the words, Eloquent and Wrote. As therefore denoting Attributes of Attributes, we call them Attributes of Attributes, we call them Attributes.

GRAMMARIANS have given them the Name of Ἐπιβρήματα, Adverbia, Adverbia, Adverbs. And indeed if we take the word Ῥμα, or Verb, in its most comprehensive Signification, as including not only Verbs properly so called, but also Participles and Adjectives [an usage, which may be justified by the best authorities (a)] we shall find the name, Επίβρη-

(a) Thus Aristotle in his Treatise de Interpretatione, instances "Ανθεωπος as a Noun, and Λεῦκος as a Verb. So Ammonius—κατὰ τῦτο τὸ σημαινόμενος, τὸ μὰν ΚΑΛΟΣ κὰ ΔΙΚΑΙΟΣ κὰ ὄσα τοιαῦτα— PHMATA λόγοσθαι κὰ ἐκ 'ONO-MATA. According to this Signification (that is of denoting the Attributes of Substance and the Predicate

Ch. XI. that Intention and Remission are among the Attributes of such Attributes .-Hence then one copious Source of secondary Attributives, or Adverbs, to denote these two, that is, Intension and Remission. The Greeks have their 920μαςῶς μάλιςα, σάνυ, Ϋκιςα; the Latins their valde, vehementer, maxime, satis, mediocriter; the English their greatly, vastly, extremely, sufficiently, moderately, tolerably, indifferently, &c.

> FARTHER than this, where there are different Intensions of the same Attribute, they may be compared together. Thus if the Garment A be EXCEEDING-LY White, and the Garment B be Mo-DERATELY White, we may say, the Garment A is MORE white than the Garment B.

In these Instances the Adverb More not only denotes Intension, but relative Intension. Nay we stop not here. We not only denote Intension merely relative

tive but relative Intension, than which there is none greater. Thus we not only say the Mountain A is More high than the Mountain B, but that it is the Most high of all Mountains. Even Verbs, properly so called, as they admit simple Intensions, so they admit also these comparative ones. Thus in the following Example—Fame he Loveth More than Riches, but Virtue of all things he Loveth Most—the Words More and Most denote the different comparative Intensions of the Verbal Attributive, Loveth.

AND hence the rise of Comparison, and of its different Degrees; which cannot well be more, than the two Species above mentioned, one to denote Simple Excess, and one to denote Superlative. Were we indeed to introduce more degrees than these, we ought perhaps to introduce infinite, which is absurd. For why stop at a limited Number, when in all subjects, susceptible of Intension, the intermediate Excesses are in a manner.

. XI. per infinite? There are infinite Degrees of more White, between the first Simple White, and the Superlative, Whitest: the same may be said of more Great, more Strong, more Minute, &c. The Doctrine of Grammarians about three such Degrees, which they call the Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative, must needs be absurd; both because in their Positive there is + no Comparison at all, and because their Superlative is a Comparative, as much as their Comparative itself. Examples to evince this may be found every where. Socrates was the MOST WISE of all the Athenians-Homer was the MOST SUB-LIME of all Poets .-

—Cadit et Ripheus Justissimus unus.

Qui fuit in Teucris— Virg.

IT.

⁺ Qui (scil. Gradus Positious) quoniam perfectus est, a quibusdam in numero Graduum non computatur. Consentii Ars apud Putsch. p. 2022.

It must be confessed these Compa-Ch. XI. ratives, as well the simple, as the super-lative, seem sometimes to part with their relative Nature, and only retain their intensive. Thus in the Degree, denoting simple Excess,

Tristior, et lacrymis oculos suffusa nitentes. Virg.

Rusticior paulo est—

Hor.

In the Superlative this is more usual. Vir doctissimus, Vir fortissimus, a most learned Man, a most brave man,—that is to say, not the bravest and most learned Man, that ever existed, but a Man possessing those Qualities in an eminent Degree.

THE Authors of Language have contrived a method to retrench these Comparative Adverbs, by expressing their force in the Primary Attributive. Thus instead of *More fair*, they say FAIRER; instead of *Most fair*, FAIREST, and the same holds true both in the *Greek* and O 4 Latin.

Ch. XI. Latin. This Practice however has reached no farther than to Adjectives, or at least to Participles, sharing the nature of Adjectives. Verbs perhaps were thought too much diversified already, to admit more Variations without perplexity.

As there are some Attributives, which admit of Comparison, so there are others, which admit of none. Such for example are those, which denote that Quality of Bodies arising from their Figure ; as when we say, a Circular Table, a Quadrangular Court, a Conical Piece of Metal, &c. The reason is, that a million of things, participating the same Figure, participate it equally, if they participate it at all. To say therefore that while A and B are both quadrangular, A is more or less quadrangular The same holds than B, is absurd. true in all Attributives, denoting definite Quantities, whether continuous or discrete, whether absolute or relative,-Thus



Rule A cannot be Ch. XI.
Rule, than any other of

igth. Twenty Lions cannot
wenty than twenty Flies. If A
be both triple or quadruple to C,
y cannot be more triple, or more quaruple, one than the other. The reason
of all this is, there can be no Comparison without Intension and Remission;
there can be no Intension and Remission in things always definite; and such
are the Attributives, which we have last
mentioned.

In the same reasoning we see the cause, why no Substantive is susceptible of these Comparative Degrees. A Mountain cannot be said MORE TO BE, OT TO EXIST, than a Mole-hill, but the More and Less must be sought for in their Quantities. In like manner when we refer many Individuals to one Species, the Lion A cannot be called more a Lion, than the Lion B, but if more any thing, he is more fierce, more speedy, or exceeding

Ch. XI. ing in some such Attribute. So again, in referring many Species to one Genus, a Crocodile is not more an Animal, than a Lizard; nor a Tiger, more than a Cat, but if any thing, they are more bulky, more strong, &c. the Excess, as before, being derived from their Attributes.—

So true is that saying of the acute Stagirite—that Substance is not susceptible of More and Less(c). But this by way of digression; to return to the subject of Adverbs.

Or the Adverbs, or secondary Attributives already mentioned, these denoting Intension or Remission may be called Adverbs of Quantity continuous; Once, Twice, Thrice, are Adverbs of Quantity discrete; More and Most, Less and

Description of

⁽c) six ar imidigente is sola το μάλλοι τὸ τολτίοι, Categor.
c. 5. See also Sanctius, L. I. c. 11. L. II. c. 10,
11. where the subject of Comparatives is treated in a very masterly and philosophical manner. See also Priscian, p. 598. Derivantur igitur Comparative a Nominibus Adjectivis, &c.

and Least, to which may be added Ch. XI.

Equally, Proportionally, &c. are Adverbs
of Relation. There are others of Quality, as when we say, Honestly industrious, Prudently brave, they fought
BRAVELY, he painted finely, a Portico
formed Circularly, a Plain cut TriAngularly, &c.

And here it is worth while to observe, how the same thing, participating the same Essence, assumes different grammatical forms from its different relations. For example, suppose it should be asked, how differ Honest, Honestly, and Honesty. The Answer is, they are in Essence the same, but they differ, in as much as Honest is the Attributive of a Substantive; Honestly, of a Verb; and Honesty, being divested of these its attributive Relations, assumes the Power of a Substantive, so as to stand by itself.

THE Adverbs, hitherto mentioned, are common to Verbs of every Species;

1 but

Ch. XI. but there are some which are peculiar to Verbs properly so called, that is to say, to such as denote Motion or Energy, with their Privations. All MOTION and REST imply TIME and PLACE, as a kind of necessary Coincidents. Hence then, if we would express the Place or Time of either, we must needs have recourse to the proper Adverbs; of Place, as when we say, he stood THERE, he went HENCE; he travelled FAR, &c.: of Time, as when we say, he stood THEN; he went AFTERWARD: he travelled FOR-MERLY, &c. Should it be askedwhy Adverbs of Time, when Verbs have Tenses? The Answer is, tho' Tenses may be sufficient to denote the greater distinctions of Time, yet to denote them all by Tenses would be a perplexity without end. What a variety of Forms, to denote Yesterday, To-day, To-morrow, Formerly, Lately, Just now, Now, Immediately, Presently, Soon, Hereafter, &c.? It was this then that made the Tem-



Temporal Adverbs necessary, over and Ch. XI. above the Tenses.

To the Adverbs just mentioned may be added those, which denote the Intensions and Remissions peculiar to Motion, such as speedily, hastily, swiftly, slowly, &c. as also Adverbs of Place, made out of Prepositions, such as ἔνω and κάτω from $\partial u \partial u$ and $u \partial u \partial u$, in English upward and downward, from up and down. some instances the Preposition suffers no change, but becomes an Adverb by nothing more than its Application, as when we say, CIRCA equitat, he rides ABOUT; PROPE cecidit, he was NEAR falling; Verum ne POST conferas culpam in me, But do not AFTER lay the blame on $me^{(d)}$.

THERE

⁽d) Sosip. Charisii Inst. Gram. p. 170. Terent Eun. Act II. Sc. 3.

HERMES.

Ch. XI.

THERE are likewise Adverbs of Interrogation, such as Where, Whence, Whither, How; of which there is this remarkable, that when they lose their Interrogative power, they assume that of
a Relative, so as even to represent the
Relative or Subjunctive Pronoun. Thus
Ovid,

Et Seges est, UBI Troja fuit-

translated in our old English Ballad,

And Corn doth grow WHERE Troy town stood.

That is to say, Seges est in eo loco, IN. QUO, &c. Corn groweth in that place, IN WHICH, &c. the power of the Relative, being implied in the Adverb. Thus Terence,

Hujusmodi mihi res semper comminiscere, Ubi me excarnufices— Heaut. IV. 6..

where UBI relates to res, and stands for quibus rebus.

IT is in like manner that the Relative Ch. XI.

- Pronoun upon occasion becomes an Interrogative, at least in Latin and English.

Thus Horace,

QUEM Virum aut Heroa lyrå, vel acri Tibià sumes celebrare, Clio?

So Milton,

Who first seduc'd them to that foul revolt?

The reason of all this is as follows, The Pronoun and Adverbs here mentioned are all alike, in their original character, Relatives. Even when they become Interrogatives, they lose not this character, but are still Relatives, as much as ever. The difference is, that without an Interrogation, they have reference to a Subject, which is antecedent, definite, and known; with an Interrogation, to a Subject which is subsequent, indefinite, and unknown, and which

Ch. XI. which it is expected that the Answer should express and ascertain.

Who first seduc'd them?

The very Question itself supposes a Seducer, to which, though unknown, the Pronoun, Who, has a reference.

Th' infernal Serpent -

Here in the Answer we have the Subject, which was indefinite, ascertained; so that the Who in the Interrogation is (we see) as much a Relative, as if it had been said originally, without any interrogation at all, It was the infernal Serpent, who first seduced them.

AND thus is it that *Interrogatives* and *Relatives* mutually pass into each other.

AND so much for ADVERBS, peculiar to Verbs properly so called. We have already spoken of those, which are common to all Attributives. We have likewise



wise attempted to explain their general Ch. XL. Nature, which we have found to consist in being the Attributes of Attributes. There remains only to add, that Ap-VERBS may be derived from almost every Part of Speech: from PREPOSITIONS, when from After we derive Afterwardsfrom Participles, and through these from Verbs, as when from Know we derive Knowing, and thence Knowingly; from Scio, Sciens, and thence Scienterfrom Adjectives, as when from Virtuous and Vicious, we derive Virtuously and Viciously-from Substantives, as when from Illyn, an Ape, we derive Πιθήμειου βλέπειν, to look APISHLY: from Λέων, a Lion, Λεουτωδῶς, Leoninely—nay. even from Proper Names, as when from Socrates and Demosthenes, we derive Socratically and Demosthenically.— · It was Socratically reasoned, we say; it was Demosthenically spoken.* same

^{*} Aristotle has Κυπλοπικος Cyclopically, from Κύκλωψ « Cyclops. Eth. Nic. X. 9.

summers and unity others, cited by the cite Communities, such as Catilinites Anna Catilina, Statuteter from Second, Talliant Late Ballon, &c.

Device an they then extensive only in Device him. In the Englication also. Therefore Edite in his Engenture informs us. O that Absorbing may be found in every one of the Philippenins, and that the remiliest may the Hallice their Infinitially, was to reflect them by classes to these tells unitative Cotton. The States to the same multiform Nature. Omnia in security mass collect per satiram, concessed who reruns varied potestate. It is thus that Sosipater explains the Word, so from whose

See Princ, L. XV. p. 1922. See. Charie, 161. Bills. Patrobii.

[&]quot; — In it is described that is the implementary that the indian series which were, which is to a first that the contract of th

[&]amp; Shipe Char. p. 175. Edit. Putschii.

whose authority we know it to be Ch. XI. Stoical. But of this enough.

AND now having finished these PRIN-CIPAL PARTS OF Speech, the SUBSTAN-TIVE and the ATTRIBUTIVE, which are SIGNIFICANT WHEN ALONE, WE proceed to those AUXILIARY PARTS, which are ONLY SIGNIFICANT, WHEN ASSO-CIATED. But as these make the Subject of a Book by themselves, we here conclude the first Book of this Treatise.

P 2

HER-

DEFINITIVES, the Subject of the present Chapter, are commonly called by Grammarians, ARTICLES, ARTICULI, "Apoga. They are of two kinds, either those properly and strictly so called, or else the Pronominal Articles, such as This, That, Any, &c.

We shall first treat of those Articles more strictly so denominated, the reason and use of which may be explained, as follows.

The visible and individual Substances of Nature are infinitely more numerous, than for each to admit of a particular Name. To supply this defect, when any Individual occurs, which either wants a proper Name, or whose proper Name is not known, we ascertain it, as well as we can, by referring it to its Species; or, if the Species be unknown, then at least to some Genus. For example—a certain Object occurs, with a head

HERMES

OR

A PHILOSOPHICAL ENQUIRY

CONCERNING

UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR.

BOOK II.

CHAP. I.

Concerning Definitives.

WHAT remains of our Work, is a matter of less difficulty, it being the same here, as in some Historical Picture; when the principal Figures are once formed, it is an easy labour to design the rest.

P3

DE-

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Chil

gues a Begger with a long Beard. The Man departs, and returns a Week after. What do I say them?—There goes THE Begger with THE long Board. The Arfacle only is changed, the rest remains unabsered.

Tax mark the force of this apparently minute Change. The Individual, once tague, is now recognized as smething known, and that merely by the efficacy of this latter Article, which tacitly insinuates a kind of previous acquaintance, by referring the present Perception to a like Perception already past. (a)

THE Truth is the Articles (A) and (THE) are both of them definitives, as they circumscribe the latitude of Genera and Species, by reducing them for the most

(a) See B. I. c. 5. p. 63, 64.



most part to denote Individuals. The difference however between them is this; the Article (A) leaves the Individual itself unascertained, whereas the Article (THE) ascertains the Individual also, and is for that reason the more accurate Definitive of the two.

It is perhaps owing to the imperfect manner, in which the Article (A) defines, that the Greeks have no Article correspondent to it, but supply its place, by a negation of their Article, 'O. 'O ἀνθρωπ ὁ ἔπεσεν, The man fell— ἀν-θρωπ ὁ ἔπεσεν, A Man fell without any thing prefixed, but only the Article withdrawn. (b) Even in English, where the Article

⁽b) Τὰ γὰς ἀοςις ωδῶς το το κομενα, ἡ τῷ ἄςθςυ παςάθεσις ὑπὸ ὁςισμὸν τῷ περούπει ἄγιι. Those things, which are at times understood indefinitely, the addition of the Article makes to be definite as to their Person. Apoll. L. IV. c. 1. See of the same author, L. I. c. 6, 36. τοιεῖ (τὸ Αςθςον εc.) δ ἀναπόλησιν προεγγωσμένε τῷ ἐν τῷ συντάξιι οἰον ἐν μὰν

Article (A) cannot be used, as in plurals, its force is exprest by the same Negation. Those are THE Men, means those are Individuals, of which we possess some previous Knowledge. Those are than that they are so many vague and uncertain Individuals, just as the Phrase, A Man, in the singular, implies one of the same number.

Bur

μίν λίγον τις, ΑΝΘΡΩΠΟΣ ΗΚΕ, άδηλον τίνα άνθεωπαν λίγοι. it δὶ Ο ΑΝΘΡΩΠΟΣ, δηλον, ωροιγνωσμίνον γὰς τικο άνθεωπον λίγοι. Τῦτο δὶ ἀυτὸ βέλονται κὸ ὁι Φάσκοντις τὰ ἄρθεον σημαντικὸν ωρώτης γνώσιως κὸ διυτίρας. The Article causes a Review within the Mind of something known before the texture of the Discourse. Thus if any one says ᾿Ανθεωπῶν ἦκε, ΜΑΝ CAME (which is the same, as when we say in English A man came) it is not evident, of whom he speaks. But if he says ὁ ἄνθεωπῶν ἦκε. ΤΗΕ ΜΑΝ CAME, then it is evident; for he speaks of some Person known before. And this is what those mean who say that the Article is expressive of the First and Second Knowledge together. Theod. Gazæ. L. 1V.

But the Greeks have no Article Ch. L. correspondent to the Article (A,) yet nothing can be more nearly related, than their 'O, to the Article THE. 'O Bagilers. THE King; TO δῶρον, THE Gift, &c. Nor is this only to be proved by parallel examples, but by the Attributes of the Greek Article, as they are described by Apollonius, one of the earliest and most acute of the old Grammarians, now remaining.

Έςιν ών καθό καὶ έν αλλοις ἀπεφηνάμεθα, ίδιον ἄρθρων ή ἀναΦορὰ, ή ἐςι ωροκατειλεγ-แล้ง พองาย์สะ พลงลรุลรเหน่.—Now the peculiar Attribute of the Article, as we have shewn elsewhere, is that Reference, which implies some certain Person already mentioned. Again-'Ου γὰς δήγε τά δνόματα εξ αυτών αναφοράν παρίζησιν, εί μή συμπαοαλάβοιεν το ἄρθρον, ε εξαίρετος έςιν ή άναφοoa. For Nouns of themselves imply not Reference, unless they take to them the Article,

Ch.I. ticle, whose peculiar Character is Reference. Again—Το ἔρθρον προϋΦεςῶσαν γνῶσιν δηλοι—The Article indicates a pre-established acquaintance. (c)

His reasoning upon Proper Names is worth remarking. Proper Names (he tells us) often fall into Homonymie, that is, different Persons often go by the same Name. To solve this ambiguity, we have recourse to Adjectives or Epithets. For example—there were two Grecian chiefs, who bore the name of Ajax. It was not therefore without reason, that Menestheus uses Epithets, when this intent was to distinguish the one of them from the other.

'Αλλά

¹⁰⁾ Apoll. de Synt. L. I. c. 6, 7. His account of Re-FERENCE is as follows— Ιδίωμα ἀναφοςᾶς ωςοκατειλιγμία ωςοσώπε δευτίς χνῶσις, The peculiar character of Reference is the second or repeated Knowledge of some Person, already mentioned. L. II. c. 3.

. ²Αλλὰ περ οἶΦ ἴτω ΤελαμώνιΦ ἄλκιμΦ C Αἴας. Hom.

Ch. L

If both Ajaxes (says he) cannot be spared,
—at least alone
Let mighty Telamonian Ajax come.

Apollonius proceeds—Even Epithets themselves are diffused thro' various Subjects, in as much as the same Adjective may be referred to many Substantives.

In order therefore to render both Parts of Speech equally definite, that is to say the Adjective as well as the Substantive, the Adjective itself assumes an Article before it, that it may indicate a Reference to some single Person only, μοναδική ἀναφορὰ, according to the Author's own Phrase. And thus it is we say, Τρύφων ὁ Γραμματικός, Trypho the Grammarian; Απολλόδωρῶ ὁ Κυρηναῖῶ, Apollodorus the Cyrenean, &c. The Author's

Ch. I.

Author's Conclusion of this Section is worth remarking. Δεόντως ἄςα καὶ κατὰ τὸ τοιθτον ἡ πρόσθεσίς ἐςι τθ ἄςθςθ, συνιδιάζεσα τὸ ἐπιθετικὸν τῷ κυρίφ ἐνόματι—It is with reason therefore that the Article is here also added, as it brings the Adjective to an Individuality, as precise, as the proper Name.(d)

We may carry this reasoning farther, and shew, how by help of the Article even common Appellatives, come to have the force of proper Names, and that unassisted by epithets of any kinds. Among the Athenians Πλοΐον meant Ship; Ενδεκα, Eleven; and Ανθρωπ, Man. Yet add but the Article, and Τὸ Πλοΐον, The Ship, meant that particular Ship, which they sent annually to Delos; Οι Ένδεκα, The eleven meant certain Officers of Justice; and Ο Ανθρωπ, The MAN, meant their public Executioner. So in English,

⁽e) See Apoll. L. I. c. 12. where by mistake Menelous is put for Menestheus.

City, is a Name common to many places; and Speaker, a Name common to many Men. Yet if we prefix the Article, THE CITY means our Metropolis; and THE SPEAKER, a high Officer in the British Parliament.

AND thus it is by an easy transition, that the Article, from denoting Reference, comes to denote Eminence also; that is to say, from implying an ordinary pre-acquaintance, to presume a kind of general and universal Notoriety. Thus among the Greeks'o Hounth's, the poet, meant Homer(e); and 'O Etayeigiths, the stagistic, meant Aristotle; not that

⁽c) There are so few exceptions to this Observation, that we may fairly admit it to be generally true. Yet Aristotle twice denotes Euripides by the Phrase i works, once at the end of the seventh Book of his Nicomachian Ethics, and again in his Physics, L. II. 2. Plato also in his tenth Book of Laws (p. 901. Edit. Serr.) denotes Hesiod after the same manner.

Ch. I. there were not many Poets, beside

Homer; and many Stagirites, beside

Aristotle; but none equally illustrious
for their Poetry and Philosophy.

IT is on a like principle that Aristotle tells us, it is by no means the same thing to assert—εἶναι τὰν ὑδονὰν ἀγαθὸν, or, To ἀγαθὸν—that, Pleasure is a Good, or, The Good. The first only makes it a common Object of Desire, upon a level with many others, which daily raise our wishes; the last supposes it that supreme and sovereign Good, the ultimate Scope of all our Actions and Endeavours. O

But to pursue our Subject. It has been said already that the Article has no meaning, but when associated to some other word.—To what words then may it be associated?—To such as require

⁽f) Analyt, Prior. L. I. c. 40.

quire defining, for it is by nature a Definitive.—And what Words are these?—
Not those which already are as definite,
as may be. Nor yet those, which, being
indefinite, cannot properly be made otherwise. It remains then they must be
those, which though indefinite, are yet capable, through the Article, of becoming
definite.

Upon these Principles we see the reason, why it is absurd to say, O EΓΩ, THE I, or Q ΣΤ, THE THOU, because nothing can make those Pronouns more definite, than they are (g) The same may be asserted

⁽s) Apollonius makes it part of the Pronoun's Definition, to refuse co-alescence with the Article. Έκιῖνο δη 'Αντωνυμία, τὸ μετὰ διίξιως ἢ ἀναφοςᾶς ἀντονομαζόμινοι, ἢ ἐ σῦνες, τὸ ἄξθεον. That therefore is a Pronoun, which with Indication or Reference is put for a Noun, and with which the Article both not associate. L. II. c. 5. So Gaza, speaking of Pronouns—Πάθη δὶ—ἀκ ἰπιδίχονλαι ἄξθεον. L. IV. Priscian says the same. Jure igitur apud Græcos prima et secunda persona pronominum, quæ sine

Ch. L. serted of Proper Names, and though the Greeks sav & Experty, in Exporty, and the like, yet the Article is a merc Pleonasm, unless perhaps it serve to distinguish Sexes. By the same rule we cannot say in Greek, OI AMOTEPOL, or in English, THE BOTH, because these Words in their own nature are each of them perfectly defined, so that to define them farther would be quite superfluous.— Thus, if it be said, I have read BOTH Poets, this plainly indicates a definite pair, of whom some mention has been made already; Auz egyazuew, a known Duad, as Apollonius expresses himself, b when he speaks of this Subject. the contrary, if it be said, I have read Two Poets, this may mean any pair out of

> sine ducio demonstrativa sunte articulis adjungi non possunt; nec to tia, quando demonstrativa est. L. XII. p. 938. -In the beginning of the same Book, he gives the true reason of this. Supra emnes alias partes orationis finit PERSON 48 PRONOMEN.

⁽ Apollon. L. I. c. 16.

of all that ever existed. And hence this Numeral, being in this Sense indefinite (as indeed are all others, as well as itself) is forced to assume the Article. whenever it would become definite.* And thus it is, THE Two in English, and of aro in Greek, mean nearly the same thing, as BOTH or AMPOTEPOI,— Hence also it is, that as Two, when taken alone, has reference to some primary and indefinite Perception, while the Article, THE, has reference to some secondary and definite+; hence I say the Reason, why it is bad Greek to say ato OI ANΘΡΩΠΟΙ, and bad English, to say Two the MEN. Such Syntax is in fact a Blending of Incompatibles, that is Q 2

^{*} This explains Servius on the XIIth Æneid. v. 511. where he tells us that Duorum is put for Amborum. In English or Greek the Article would have done the business, for the Two, or row down are equivalent to Both or emphision, but not so Duorum, because the Latins have no Articles to prefix.

⁺ Sup. p. 215, 216.

to say of a defined Substantive with an undefined Attributive. On the contrary to say in Greek ΑΜΦΟΤΕΡΟΙ ΟΙ ΑΝΘΡΩΠΟΙ, or in English, BOTH THE MEN, is good and allowable, because the Substantive cannot possibly be less apt, by being defined, to coalesce with an Attributive, which is defined as well as itself. So likewise, it is correct to say, OI ΔΤΟ ΑΝΘΡΩΠΟΙ, THE TWO MEN, because here the Article, being placed in the beginning, extends its Power as well through Substantive as Attributive, and equally contributes to define them both.

As some of the words above admit of no Article, because they are by Nature as definite as may be, so there are others, which admit it not, because they are not to be defined at all. Of this sort are all INTERROGATIVES. If we question about Substances, we cannot say O TIE OTTOE, THE WHO IS THIS; but TIE OTTOE,

Ch. I.

OTTOE, Who is this? (1). The same as to Qualities and both kinds of Quantity. We say without an Article, HOIOE HOEOI, HHAIKOE, in English, what sort of, how many, how great. The Reason is, that the Articles o and the, respect Beings, already known; Interrogatives respect Beings, about which we are ignorant; for as to what we know, Interrogation is superfluous.

In a word the natural Associators with Articles are all those common Appellatives, which denote the several Genera and Species of Beings. It is these, which, by assuming a different Article, serve either to explain an Individual upon its first being perceived, or else to indicate, upon its return, a Recognition, or repeated Knowledge. (k)

Q3

We

 ⁽i) Apollonius calls ΤΙΣ, ἐνανλιώτατον τῶν ἄξθρων, a Part of Speech most contrary, most averse to Articles, L. IV.
 c. 1.

⁽k) What is here said respects the two Articles which

Ch.I.

WE shall here subjoin a few Instances of the Peculiar Power of Articles.

EVERY Proposition consists of a Subject, and a Predicate. In English these are distinguished by their Position, the Subject standing first, the Predicate last. Happiness is Pleasure-Here, Happiness is the Subject; Pleasure, the Predicate. If we change their order, and say, Pleasure is Happiness; then Pleasure becomes the Subject, and Happiness the Predicate. In Greek these are distinguished not by any Order or Position, but by help of the Article, which the Subject always assumes, and the Predicate in most instances (some few excepted) rejects. Happiness is Pleasure ύδονη ή ευδαιμονία—Pleasure is Happiness— ห์ ห่องหา ยิบอิลเนองใน—Fine things are difficult. -χαλεπά τὰ καλά-Difficult things are fine -τὰ χαλεπά καλά.

In-

we have in English. In Greek the Article does no more, than imply a Recognition. See before p. 216, 217, 218.

In Greek it is worth attending, how in the same Sentence, the same Article, by being prefixed to a different Word. quite changes the whole meaning. For example—O ΠτολεμᾶιΦ γυμνασιαρχήσας, ετιμήθη-Ptolemy, having presided over the Games, was publickly honoured. The Participle γυμνασιαρχήσας has here no other force, than to denote to us the Time, when Ptolemy was honoured, viz. after having presided over the Games. if, instead of the Substantive, we join the Participle to the Article, and say, Ογυμνασιαρχήσας Πτολεμαι Θέτιμήθη, our meaning is then—The Ptolemy, who presided over the Games, was honoured. Participle in this case, being joined to the Article, tends tacitly to indicate not one Ptolemy but many, of which number a particular one participated of honour.

Q 4

 $\mathbf{I}\mathbf{N}$

In English likewise it deserves remarking, how the Sense is changed by changing of the Articles, tho' we leave every other Word of the Sentence untouched .- And Nathan said unto David, THOU ART THE MAN.* In that single THE, that diminutive Particle, all the force and efficacy of the Reason is contained. By that alone are the Premises applied, and so firmly fixed, as never to be shaken. It is possible this Assertion may appear at first somewhat strange; but let him, who doubts it, only change the Article, and then see what will become of the Prophet and his reasoning.—And Nathan said unto David, THOU ART A MAN. Might not the King well have demanded upon so

> Non dices hodie, quorsum hac tam putida tendant?

impertinent a position.

Bur

[•] ΣΥ ΕΙ 'O ANHP. Bagil, B', κτφ. ιζ'.

BUT enough of such Speculations. The only remark, which we shall make on them, is this; that "minute Change "in Principles leads to mighty "Change in Effects; so that well are "Principles intitled to our regard, "however in appearance they may be "trivial and low."

THE ARTICLES already mentioned are those strictly so called; but besides these there are the Pronominal Articles, such as, This, That, Any, Other, Some, All, No, or None, &c. Of these we have spoken already in our Chapter of Pronouns, (m) where we have shewn, when

⁽m) See B. I. c. 5. p. 72, 73. It seems to have been some view of words, like that here given, which induced Quintilian to say of the Latin Tongue—Noster sermo Articulos non desiderat; ideoque in alias partes orationis sparguntur. Inst. Orat. L. I. c. 4. So Scaliger. His declaratis, satis constat Gracorum Articulos non neglectos a mobis, sed eorum usum superfluum. Nam ubi aliquid prascribendum est, quod Graci per articulum efficiunt (instin

Ch. I.

when they may be taken as Pronouns, and when as Articles. Yet in truth it must be confessed, if the Essence of an Article be to define and ascertain, they are much more properly Articles, than any thing else, and as such should be considered in Universal Grammar .-Thus when we say, THIS Picture I approve, but THAT I dislike, what do we perform by the help of these Definitives, but bring down the common Appellative to denote two Individuals, the one as the more near, the other as the more distant? So when we say, Some men are virtuous, but ALL men are mortal, what is the natural Effect of this ALL and Some, but to define that Universality, and Particularity, which would remain

i δῦλος) explctur a Latinis per Is aut ILLE; Is, aut, Ille servus dixit, de quo servo antea facta mentio sit, aut qui alio quo pacto notus sit. Additur enim Articulus ad rei memorium renovandam, cujus antea non nescii sumus, aut ad præscribendam intellectionem, quæ latiùs putere queat; veluti cum dicimus, C. Cæsar, Is qui postea dictator fuit. Nam alii fuere C. Cæsares. Sic Græcè Καῖσας ὁ ἀντοιςάτως. De Caus. Ling. Lat. c. 131.



remain indefinite, were we to take them Ch. I. The same is evident in such away? Sentences, as—Some substances have sensation; OTHERS want it—Chuse ANY way of acting, and some men will find fault, &c. For here some, other, and ANY, serve all of them to define different Parts of a given Whole; Some, to denote a definite Part; Any, to denote an indefinite; and OTHER, to denote the remaining Part, when a Part has been assumed already. Sometimes this last Word denotes a large indefinite Portion, set in opposition to some single, definite, and remaining Part, which receives from such Opposition no small degree of heightening. Thus Virgil,

Excudent ALII spirantia molliùs æra; (Credo equidem) vivos ducent de marmore vultus:

Orabunt causas meliùs, cælique meatus Describent radio, et surgentia sidera dicent :

Tu regere imperio populos, Romane, memento, &c. Æn. VI. NOTHING

Ch. I. NOTHING can be stronger or more sublime, than this Antithesis; one Act set as equal to many other Acts taken together, and the Roman singly (for it is Tu Romane, not Vos Romani) to all other Men; and yet this performed by so trivial a cause, as the just opposition of Alii to Tu.

But here we conclude, and proceed to treat of CONNECTIVES.

CHAP

CHAP. II.

Concerning Connectives, and first those called Conjunctions.

CONNECTIVES are the subject of ch. II. what follows; which, according as they connect either Scattences or Words, are called by the different Names of Conjunctions, or Prepositions. Of these Names, that of the Preposition is taken from a mere accident, as it commonly stands in connection before the Part, which it connects. The name of the Conjunction, as is evident, has reference to its essential character.

Or these two we shall consider the Conjunction first, because it connects, not Words, but Sentences. This is conformable to the Analysis, with which we began this inquiry*, and which led

us,

^{*} Sup. p. 11, 12.

Ch. II.

us, by parity of reason, to consider Sentences themselves before Words. Now the Definition of a Conjunction is as follows—a Part of Speech, void of Signification itself, but so formed as to help Signification, by making two or more significant Sentences to be one significant Sentence(a).

THIS

(a) Grammarians have usually considered the Conjunction as connecting rather single Parts of Speech, than whole Sentences, and that too with the addition of like with like, Tense with Tense, Number with Number, Case with Case, &c. This Sanotius justly explodes,-Conjunctio neque casus, neque alias partes orationis (ut imperiti docent) conjungit, ipsæ enim partes inter se conjunguntur-sed conjunctio Orationes inter se conjungit. Miner. L. III. c. 14. He then establishes his doctrine by a variety of examples. He had already said as much, L. I. c. 18. and in this he appears to have followed Scaliger, who had asserted the same before him. Conjunction tionis autem notionem veteres paullo inconsultius prodidere : neque enim, quod aiunt, partes alias conjungit (ipsæ enim partes per se inter se conjunguntur)—sed conjunctio est, quæ conjungit Orationes plures. De Caus. Ling. Lat. c. 165.

This

This therefore being the general Ch. II.

Idea of Conjunctions, we deduce their Species in the following manner.

Con-

This Doctrine of theirs is confirmed by Apollonius, who in the several places, where he mentions the Conjunction, always considers it in Syntax as connecting Sentences and not Words, though in his works now extant he has not given us its Definition. See L. I. c. 2. p. 14. L. II. c. 12. p. 124. L. III. c. 15. p. 234.

But we have stronger authority than this to support Scaliger and Sanctius, and that is Aristotle's Definition, as the Passage has been corrected by the best Critics and Manuscripts. A Conjunction, according to him, is φωνή ασημος, έχ ωλειόνων μέν φωνών μιας, σημανίιχων δέ, ωοιείν ερουκοία μίαι φωτήν σημαθικήν. An articulate sound, devoid of Signification, which is so formed as to make ONE significant articulate Sound out of several articulate Sounds. which are each of them significant. Poet. c. 20. In this view of things, the one significant articulate Sound, formed by the Conjunction, is not the Union of two or more Syllables in one simple Word, nor even of two or more Words in one simple Sentence, but of two or more simple Sentences in one complex Sentence, which is consider, ed as one, from that Concatenation of Meaning effected by the Conjunctions. For example, let us take the Sentence, which follows. If Men are by nature social, it is their Conference on their mean-Sentimes, either connect also their meansentimes. For example: let us take these

Laws of their Country. Here are three Sentences.

(1.) Men are by nature social. (2.) It is Man's Interest is be just. (3.) It is not ordained by the Laws of every Country that Man should be just. The first two of these Sentences are made One by the Conjunction, IF; these, One with the third Sentence, by the Conjunction, Tho'; and the three, thus united, make that puri pix onpublic, that one significant articulate Sound, of which Aristotle speaks, and which is the result of the conjunctive Power.

This explains a passage in his Rhetoric, where he mentions the same Subject. 'Ο γὰς σύνδισμος ἐν ωοιεῖ τὸ ωολλά. Τhe Εσημητίου παλει τὰ το κολλά. The Conjunction makes many, one; so that if it be taken away, it is then evident on the contrary that one will be MANY. Rhet. III. c. 12. His instance of a Sentence, divested of its Conjunctions, and thus made many out of one, is, πλθον, ἀπήκλησα, ἰδεόμην, veni, occurri, rogavi, where by the way the three Sentences, resulting from this Dissolution, (for πλθον, ἀπήκλησα, and ἐδεόμην, are each of them, when unconnected, so many perfect Sentences) prove that these are the proper Subjects of the Conjunction's connective faculty.

Ammonius'a

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these two Sentences—Rome was enslaved—Casar was ambitious—and connect them together by the Conjunction Because. Rome was enslaved, because Casar was ambitious. Here the Meanings, as well as the Sentences, appear to be connected. But if I say,—Manners must be reformed, or Liberty will be lost—Here the Conjunction, or, though it join the Sentences, yet as to their respective Meanings, is a perfect Disjunc-

Ammonius's Account of the use of this Part of Speech is elegant. Aid of two holywers his unagent plants, of nucleus its, analogous an interpretation tetraphing token, of did two in his account of the use of this partial tetraphing token, of did two in his account of Sentences that, which denotes one Existence simply, and which is strictly one, may be considered as analogous to a piece of Timber not yet severed, and called on this account One. That, which denotes several Existences, and which appears to be made one by some Conjunctive Particle, is analogous to a Ship made up of many pieces of Timber, and which by means of the nails has an apparent Unity. Am. in Lib. de Interpret, p. 54. 6.

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Disjunctive. And thus it appears, that though all Conjunctions conjoin Sentences, yet with respect to the Sense, some are Conjunctive, and some Disjunctive; and hence (6) it is that we derive their different Species.

The Conjunctions which conjoin both Sentences and their Meanings, are either Copulatives, or Continuatives. The principal Copulative in English is, And. The Continuatives are If, Because, Therefore, That, &c. The Difference between these is this—The Copulative does no more than barely couple Sentences, and is therefore applicable to all Subjects whose natures are not incompatible. Continuatives, on the contrary, by a more intimate connection, consolidate Sentences into one continuous

⁽b) Thus Scaliger. Aut ergo Sensum conjungunt, ac Verba; aut Verba tantum conjungunt, Sensum vero disjungunt. De C. L. Lat. c. 167.

continuous Whole, and are therefore applicable only to Subjects, which have an essential Co-incidence.

To explain by examples—It is no way improper to say, Lysippus was a Statuary, AND Priscian was a Grammarian—The Sun shineth, AND the Sky is clear-because these are things that may co-exist, and yet imply no absurdity. But it would be absurd to say, Lysippus was a Statuary, BECAUSE Priscian was a Grammarian; tho' not to say, the Sun shineth, BECAUSE the Sky is The Reason is, with respect to the first, the Co-incidence is merely accidental; with respect to the last, it is essential, and founded in nature. And so much for the Distinction between Copulatives and Continuatives (c).

R 2

As

⁽c) Copulativa est, quæ copulat tam Verba, quam Sennum. Thus Priscian, p. 1026. But Scaliger is more explicit—si Sensum conjungunt (conjunctiones sc.) aut necessariò,

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As to Continuatives, they are either Suppositive, such as, If; or Positive, such as Because, Therefore, As, &c. Take Examples of each—you will live happily, if you live honestly—you live happily, because you live honestly. The Difference between these Continuatives is this—The Suppositives denote Connection, but assert not actual Existence; the Positives imply both the one and the other(d).

FARTHER

cessariò, aut non necessariò: & si non necessario, tum fiunt Copulativa, &c. De C. Ling. Lat. c. 167. Priscian's own account of Continuatives is as follows. Continuative sunt, quæ continuationem & consequentiam rerum significant—ibid. Scaliger's account is—caussam aut præstituunt, aut subdunt. Ibid. c. 168. The Greek name for the Copulative was Σύνδεσμ@ συμπλεκλικός; for the Continuative, συναπλικός; the Etymologies of which words justly distinguish their respective characters.

(d) The old Greek Grammarians confined the name Eurawhxei, and the Latins that of Continuativæ, to those



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FARTHER than this, the Positives above mentioned are either CAUSAL, such as, BECAUSE, SINCE, As, &c. or Collective, such as, Therefore, Wherefore, Then, &c. The Difference between these is this—The Causals subjoin Causes to Effects—The Sun is in Eclipse, BECAUSE the Moon interpress.

Conjunctions, which we have called Suppositive or Conditional, while the Positive they called wagaavawlasi, or Subcontinuativa. They agree however in describing their proper characters. The first according to Gazs are, is vraçtiv his is, analysis of that is taken to Gazs are, is vraçtiv his is, analysis of that is taken to Gazs are, is vraçtiv his is, analysis of that is taken to return. It. IV. Priscian says, they signify to us, qualis est ordinatio is natura rerum, cum dubitatione aliquit essentia rerum—p. 1027. And Scaliger says, they conjoin sine substitution necessariá; potest enim subsistere is non subsistere; utrumque enim admittunt. Ibid. c. 168. On the contrary of the Positive, or wagaavantumi (to use his own name) Gaza tells us, it is vraçtiv merà tritus gruinnes. Ivan, consequentem cum essentia rerum—And Scaliger, non ex hypothesi, sed ea eo, quod subsistit, conjungunt. Ibid.

Ch. II. venes—The Collectives subjoin Effects to Causes—The Moon intervenes, THEREFORE the Sun is in Eclipse. Now we use Causals in those instances, where, the Effect being conspicuous, we seek its Cause; and Collectives, in Demonstrations, and Science properly so called, where

It may seem at first somewhat strange, why the Positive Conjunctions should have been considered as Subordinate to the Suppositive, which by their antient Names appears to have been the fact. Is it, that the Positive are confined to what actually is; the Suppositive extend to Possibles, nay even as far as to Impossibles? Thus it is false to affirm, As it is Day, it is Light, unless it actually be Day. But we may at midnight affirm, If it be Duy, it is Light, because the, Ir, extends to Possibles also. Nay we may affirm, by its help (if we please) even Impossibles. We may say, If the Sun be cubical, then is the Sun angular; If the Sky fall, then shall me catch Larks. Thus too Scaliger upon the same occasion—amplitudinem Continuativa percipi ex eo, quod etiam impossibile aliquando prasupponit. De C. L. Lat. C. 168. In this sense then the Continuative, Suppositive or Conditional Conjunction is, (as it were) su, perior to the Positive, as being of greater latitude in its application.

where the Cause being known first, by Ch. its help we discern consequences'(e).

ALL these Continuatives are resolvable into Copulatives. Instead of, BECAUSE it is Day, it is light, we may say, It is Day, AND it is Light. Instead of, IF it be Day, it is Light, we may say, It is at the same time necessary to be Day, AND to be Light; and so in other Instances. The Reason is, that the Power of the Copulative extends to all Connexions, as well to the essential, as to the casual or Hence therefore the Contifortuitous. nuative may be resolved into a Copulative and something more, that is to say, into a Copulative implying an essential Co-incidence (f) in the subjects conjoined.

R 4

As

⁽c) The Latins called the Causals, Causales or Causativa; the Collectives, Gollectiva or Mation; The Greeks called the former 'Αιτιολογικοί, and the latter Συλλογικοί.

⁽f) Resolvantur autem in Copulativas omnes ha, propterea quod Causa cum Effectu Subpte natura conjuncta ent. Seal. de C. L. Lat. c. 169.

h. II.

As to Causal Conjunctions (of which we have spoken already) there is no one of the four Species of Causes, which they are not capable of denoting: for example, THE MATERIAL CAUSE-The Trumpet sounds, BECAUSE it is made of Metal-THE FORMAL-The Trumpet sounds, BECAUSE it is long and hollow-THE EFFICIENT-The Trumpet sounds, BECAUSE an Artist blows it-THE FINAL -The Trumpet sounds, THAT it may raise our courage. Where it is worth observing, that the three first Causes are exprest by the strong affirmation of the Indicative Mode, because if the Effect actually be, these must of necessity be But the last Cause has a different Mode, namely, the Contingent or Poten-The Reason is, that the Final Cause, tho' it may be first in Speculation, is always last in Event. That is to say, however it may be the End, which set the Artist first to work, it may still be an End beyond his Power to obtain, and which, like other Contingents, may either

either happen or not(s). Hence also Ch. II. it is connected by Conjunctions of a peculiar kind, such as, That, wa, Ut, &c.

THE Sum is, that ALL CONJUNC-TIONS, which connect both Sentences and their Meanings, are either Copulative, or Continuative; the Continuatives are either Conditional, or Positive; and the Positives are either Causal or Collective.

AND now we come to the DISJUNCTIVE CONJUNCTIONS, a Species of Words which bear this contradictory Name, because, while they disjoin the Sense, they conjoin the Sentences^(h).

With

⁽c) See B. I. c. 8. p. 142. See also Vol. I. Note VIII. p. 271. For the four Causes, see Vol. I. Note XVII. p. 280.

⁽h) 'Oı di diageuxlikoi rà diageuxphina ourriblaou ki à sigayma à sò sigaymaro, à sigosarou à sò sigosare diageuxivites, ruu peasu iniourdisou. Gaca Gram. L. IV. Disjunctiva sunt,

Ch. H.

WITH respect to these we may observe, that as there is a Principle of UNION diffused throughout all things, by which THIS WHOLE is kept together, and preserved from Dissipation; so there is a Principle of DIVERSITY diffused in like manner, the Source of Distinction, of Number, and of Order(i).

Non

nunt, quae, quamvis dictiones conjungunt, sensum tamen disjunctum habent. Prisc. L. XVI. p. 1029. And hence it is, that a Sentence, connected by Disjunctives, has a near resemblance to a simple negative Truth. For though this as to its Intellection be disjunctive (its end being to disjoin the Subject from the predicate) yet as it combines Terms together into one Proposition, it is as truly synthetical, as any Truth, that is affirmative. See Chap. I. Note (b) p. 3.

40 The DIVERSITY, which adoras Nature may be said to heighten by degrees, and as it passes to different Subjects, to become more and more intense. Some things only differ, when considered as *Individuals*, but If we recur to their Species, immediately lose all Distinction: such for instance are Socrates and Plate. Others differ as to Species, but as to Genus are the

Now it is to express in some degree the Modifications of this Diversity, that DISJUNCTIVE CONJUNCTIONS seem first to have been invented.

OF these DISJUNCTIVES, some are SIMPLE, some ADVERSATIVE—Simple, as when we say, EITHER it is Day, OR it

is

same: such are Man and Lion. There are others again, which differ as to Genus, and co-incide only in those transcendental Comprehensions of Ens, Being, Existence, and the like: such are Quantities and Qualities, as for example an Ounce, and the Colour, White. Lastly ALL Being whatever differs, as Being from Nonbeing.

Farther, in all things different, however moderate their Diversity, there is an appearance of Opposition with respect to each other, in as much as each thing is it self, and not any of the rest. But yet in all Subjects this Opposition is not the same. In Relatives, such as Greater and Less, Double and Half, Father and Son, Cause and Effect, in these it is more striking, than in ordinary Subjects, because these always shew it, by necessarily inferring each other. In Contraries, such as Black and White, Even and Odd, Good and Bad,

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is Night—Adversative, as when we say, It is not Day, BUT it is Night. The Difference between these is, that the simple do no more, than merely disjoin; the Adversative disjoin, with an Opposition concomitant. Add to this, that the Adversative are definite; the Simple, indefinite. Thus when we say, The Number

of

Bad, Virtuous and Vitious, in these the Opposition goes still farther, because these not only differ, but are even destructive of each other. But the most potent Opposition is that of 'Arliqueus, or Contradiction, when we oppose Proposition to Proposition, Truth to Falshood, asserting of any Subject, either it is, or it is not. This indeed is an Opposition, which extends itself to all things, for every thing conceivable must needs have its Negative, though multitudes by nature have neither Relatives, nor Contraries.

Besides these Modes of Diversity, there are others that deserve notice: such for instance, as the Diversity between the Name of a thing, and its Definition; between the various Names, which belong to the same thing, and the various things, which are denoted by the same Name; all which Diversities upon occasion become a Part of our Discourse. And so much, in short, for the Subject of Diversity.

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of Three is not an even Number, BUT an odd, we not only disjoin two opposite Attributes, but we definitely affirm one, and deny the other. But when we say, The Number of the Stars is EITHER even OR odd, though we assert one Attribute to be, and the other not to be, yet the Alternative notwithstanding is left indefinite. And so much for simple Disjunctives(k).

As

(k) The simple Disjunctive $\frac{2}{3}$, or Vel, is mostly used indefinitely, so as to leave an Alternative. But when it is used definitely, so as to leave no Alternative, it is then a perfect Disjunctive of the Subsequent from the Previous, and has the same force with $\frac{2}{3}$ is, or, Et non. It is thus Gaza explains that Verse of Homer.

Βέλομ' εγώ λαὸν σόον ξμμεναι, η ἀπολίσθαι.

IA. A.

That is to say, I desire the people should be saved, AND NOT be destroyed, the Conjunction & being ἀναιζετικὸς, or sublative. It must however be confest, that this Verse is otherwise explained by an Ellipsis, either of μᾶλλος, or ἀντίς concerning which see the Commentators.

Ch. II.

As to Adversative Disjunctives, it has been said already that they imply Opposition. Now there can be no Opposition of the same Attribute, in the same Subject, as when we say, Nireus was beautiful; but the Opposition must be either of the same Attribute in different Subjects, as when we say, Brutus was a Patriot, but Casar was not—or of different Attributes in the same Subject, as when we say, Gorgias was a Sophist, but not a Philosopher—or of different Attributes in different Subjects, as when we say, Plato was a Philosopher, but Hippias was a Sophist.

THE Conjunctions used for all these purposes may be called ABSOLUTE AD-VERSATIVES.

But there are other Adversatives, besides these; as when we say, Nireus was more beautiful, THAN Achilles—Virgil was As great a Poet, As Cicero was an Orator.

The

The Character of these latter is, that they go farther than the former, by marking not only Opposition, but that Equality or Excess, which arises among Subjects from their being compared. And hence it is they may be called Adversatives of Comparison.

Besides the Adversatives here mentioned, there are two other Species, of which the most eminent are unless and 'altho'. For example—Troy will be taken, unless the Palladium be preserved—Troy will be taken, altho' Hector defend it. The nature of these Adversatives may be thus explained. As every Event is naturally allied to its Cause, so by parity of reason it is opposed to its Preventive. And as every Cause is either adequate (1) or in-adequate (in-adequate,

⁽¹⁾ This Distinction has reference to common Opinion, and the form of Language, consonant thereto. In strict metaphysical truth, No Cause, that is not adequate, is any Cause at all.

Ch. II.

quate, when it endeavours, without being effectual) so in like manner is every Preventive. Now adequate Preventives are exprest by such Adversatives, as UNLESS—Troy will be taken, UNLESS the Palladium be preserved; that is, This alone is sufficient to prevent it. The Inadequate are exprest by such Adversatives, as ALTHO—Troy will be taken, ALTHO Hector defend it; that is, Hector's Defence will prove in-effectual.

THE Names given by the old Grammarians to denote these last Adversatives, appear not sufficiently to express their Natures^(m). They may be better perhaps called Adversatives Adequate and In-adequate.

And thus it is that all Disjunctives, that is Conjunctions, which conjoin

⁽m) They called them for the most part, without sufficient Distinction of their Species, Adversativa, or Έναντωματικοί.

join Sentences, but not their Meanings, are chill. either Simple or Adversative, and that all Adversatives are either Absolute or Comparative; or else Adequate or In-adequate.

WE shall finish this Chapter with a few miscellany Observations.

In the first place it may be observed, through all the Species of Disjunctives, that the same Disjunctive appears to have greater or less force, according as the Subjects, which it disjoins, are more or less disjoined by Nature. For example, if we say, Every Number is even, OR odd—Every Proposition is true, OR false-nothing seems to disjoin more strongly than the Disjunctive, because no things are in Nature more incompatible than the Subjects. But if we say, That Object is a Triangle, OR Figure contained under three right lines—the (OR) in this case hardly seems to disjoin, or indeed to do more, than distinctly

Ch. II. tinctly to express the Thing, first by its Name, and then by its Definition. So if we say, That Figure is a Sphere, or a Globe, or a Ball—the Disjunctive in this case, tends no farther to disjoin, than as it distinguishes the several Names, which belong to the same Thing (*).

AGAIN—the Words, When and Where, and all others of the same nature, such as Whence, Whither, Whenever, Wherever, &c. may be properly called ADVERBIAL CONJUNCTIONS, because they participate the nature both of Adverbs and Conjunctions—of Conjunctions, as they conjain Sentences; of Adverbs, as they denote

⁽n) The Latins had a peculiar Particle for this occasion, which they called Subdisjunctiva, a Subdisjunctive; and that was Sive. Alexander sive Paris; Mars sive Mavors. The Greek "Eir' is seems to answer the same end. Of these Particles, Scaliger thus speaks—Et same nomen Subdisjunctivarum recte acceptum est, neque enim tam plane disjungit, quam Disjunctivae. Nam Disjunctivae sunt in Contrariis—Subdisjunctivae autem etiam in non Contrariis, sed Diversis tantum; ut, Alexander sive Paris. De C.L. Lat. c. 170.

denote the Attributes either of Time, or Ch. II. of Place.

AGAIN—these Adverbial Conjunctions, and perhaps most of the Prepositions (contrary to the Character of accessory Words, which have strictly no Signification, but when associated with other words) have a kind of obscure Signification, when taken alone, by denoting those Attributes of Time and Place. And hence it is, that they appear in Grammar, like Zoophytes in Nature; a kind of (o) middle Beings, of amphibious character, which, by sharing the Attributes of the higher and the lower, conduce to link the Whole together (p).

S 2

AND

⁽ο) Πολλαχοῦ γὰς ἡ φύσις δήλη γίνεται κατὰ μικςὸν μεταδαένεσα, ὥςε ἀμφισθητεῖσθαι ἐπὶ τίνων, πότεςον ζῶον ἡ φυτὸν. Themist. p. 74. Ed. Ald. See also Arist. de Animal. Part. p. 93. 1. 10. Ed. Syll.

⁽P) It is somewhat surprising that the politest and most elegant of the Attic Writers, and Plato above all

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AND so much for Conjunctions, their Genus, and their Species.

CHAP.

the rest, should have their works filled with Particles of all kinds, and with Conjunctions in particular; while in the modern polite works, as well of ourselves as of our neighbours, scarce such a word as a Particle, or Conjunction is to be found. Is it, that where there is Connection in the Manning, there must be Words had to connect; but that where the Connection is little or none, such connectives are of little use? That Houses of Cards, without cement, may well answer their end, but not those Houses, where one would chuse to dwell? Is this the Cause? or have we attained an elegance, to the Antients unknown?

Venimus ad summam fortung, &c.

CHAP. III.

Concerning those Connectives, called Prepositions.

PREPOSITIONS by their name express Ch. III. their Place, but not their Character.—
Their Definition will distinguish them from the former Connectives. A PREPOSITION is a Part of Speech, devoid itself of Signification, but so formed as to unite two Words that are significant, and that refuse to co-alesce or unite of themselves (a). This connective Power, (which S 3 relates

⁽a) The Stoic Name for a Preposition was Προθετικός Σύνδεσμος, Præpositiva Conjunctio, a Prepositive Conjunction. 'Ως μεν εν κ΄, κατά τὰς ἄλλας ωαραθέσιες ὰι ωροθέσιες συνδεσμικής συνδέσμικής συνδέσμικής συνδέσμικής του ωροματικά, λέλκλαι ἡμῖν ἐξ ὧν κ΄ ἀφορμή ἔυρηται ωαρά τοις Στωικοίς τὰ καλείσθαι ἀιλὰς Προθετικής Σουδίσμες. Now in what manner even in other applications (besides the present) Prepositions give proof of their Conjunctive Syntax, we have mentioned already; whence

"TYPES UNITE OF THEMSELVES IN "NATURE." To which we may add, as following from what has been said; that the great Objects of Natural Union are Substances naturally co-incide with their Attributes, yet they absolutely refinee doing so, one with another (b). And hence those known Maxims in Physics, that Body is impenetrable; that two Bodies cannot passess the same place; that the same Attribute cannot belong to different Substances, &c.

From these principles it follows, that when we form a Sentence, the Substantive without difficulty co-incides with the Verb, from the natural Co-incidence of Substance and Energy—The Sun WARMETH. So likewise the Energy with

in, Causa, propter quam duo Substantiva non ponuntur sine copulá, e Philosophia petenda est: neque enim duo substantialiter unum esse potest, sicul Substantia et Actidens; itaque non dicas, CESAB, CATO PUGNAT. Scal. de Cuns. Ling. Lat. c. 177.

with the Subject, on which it operates- Ch. III. WARMETH THE EARTH. So likewise both Substance and Energy with their pro-DET Attributes .- THE SPLENDID SUN, -GENIALLY WARMETH-THE FER-TILE EARTH. But suppose we were desirous to add other Substantives, as for instance, AIR, or BEAMS. How would these co-incide, or under what Character could they be introduced? Not as Nominatives or Accusatives, for both those places are already filled; the Nominative by the Substance, SUN; the Accusative by the Substance, EARTH. Not as Attributes to these last, or to any other thing; for Attributes by nature they neither are, nor can be made. Here then we perceive the Rise and Use of PREPOSITIONS. By these we connect those Substantives to Sentences, which at the time are unable to co-alesce of themselves. Let us assume for instance a pair of these Connectives, THRO', and WITH, and mark their Effect upon the Substances here mentioned.

Ch. III. tioned. The splendid Sun WITH his Beams genially warmeth THRO' the Air the fertile Earth. The Sentence, as before, remains entire and one; the Substantives required are both introduced; and not a Word, which was there before, is detruded from its proper place.

> It must here be observed that most, if not all Prepositions seem originally formed to denote the Relations of PLACE (c). The reason is, this is that grand Relation, which Bodies or natural Substances maintain at all times one to another, whether they are contiguous; or remote, whether in motion or at rest.

It may be said indeed that in the Continuity of Place they form this UNI-

VERSE

⁽c) Omne corpus aut movetur aut quiescit: quare opus fuit aliqua nota, que TO NOY significaret, sive esset inter. duo extrema, inter quæ motus fit, sive esset in altero extremorum, in quibus fit quies. Hinc eliciemus Præpositionic essentialem definitionem. Scal. de Caus. Ling. Lat. c. 152.

VERSE OF VISIBLE WHOLE, and are made as much ONE by that general Comprehension, as is consistent with their several Natures, and specific Distinctions. Thus it is we have Prepositions to denote the contiguous Relation of Body, as when we say, Caius walketh WITH a Staff; the Statue stood UPON a Pedestal; the River ran over a Sand; others for the detached Relation, as when we say, He is going to Italy; the Sun is risen ABOVE the Hills; these Figs came from Turkey. So as to Motion and Rest, only with this difference, that here the Preposition varies its character. with the Verb. Thus if we say, that Lamp hangs from the Ceiling, the Preposition, FROM, assumes a Character of Quiescence. But if we say, that Lamp is falling FROM the Ceiling, the Preposition in such case assumes a Character of Motion. So in Milton.

-To support uneasie steps

OVER the Burning Marle-Par. L. I.

Here OVER denotes Motion.

Again-

Ch. III. Again-

-He-with looks of cordial Love Hung over her enamour'd-Par. L. IV.

Here OVER denotes Rest.

But though the original use of Prepositions was to denote the Relations of Place, they could not be confined to. this Office only. They by degrees extended themselves to Subjects incorporeal, and came to denote Relations, as well intellectual as local. Thus, because in Place he, who is above, has commonly the advantage over him, who is below, hence we transfer over and under to Dominion and Obedience; of a King we say, he ruled OVER his People; of a common Soldier, he served UNDER such a General. So too we say, with Thought; without Attention; thinking over a Subject; under Anxiety; from Fear; out? of Love; through Jealousy, &c. which instances, with many others of like



like kind, shew that the first Words of Ch. III. Men, like their first Ideas, had an immediate reference to sensible Objects, and that in afterdays, when they began to discern with their Intellect, they took those Words, which they found already made, and transferred them by metaphor to intellectual Conceptions. There is indeed no Method to express new Ideas, but either this of Metaphor, or that of Coining new Words, both which have been practised by Philosophers and wise Men, according to the nature, and exigence of the occasion (d).

IN

⁽d) Among the Words new coined we may ascribe to Anaxagoras, 'Ομοιομέριια; to Plato, Ποιότης; to Cicero, Qualitas; to Aristolle, 'Εριλίχεια; to the Stoics, 'Οντις, κεράτις, and many others.—Among the Words transferred by Metaphor from common to special Meanings, to the Platonics we may ascribe 'ιδία; to the Pythagoreans and Peripatetics, Κατηγορία, and Κατηγορία; to the Stoics, Κατάληψις, ὑπόληψις, καθήκον; to the Pytrhonists, 'Εξεςι, ἐνδίχεται, ἐπίχω, &c.

Сь. Ш.

In the foregoing use of Prepositions, we have seen how they are applied ***x** ***z***z***; by way of Juxta-position, that is to say, where they are prefixt to a Word, without becoming a Part of it.

Rut

And here I cannot but observe, that he who pretends to discuss the Sentiments of any one of these Philosophers, or even to cite and translate him (except in trite and obvious sentences) without accurately knowing the Greek Tongue in general; the nice differences of many Words apparently synonymous; the peculiar Stile of the Author whom he presumes to handle; the new coined Words, and new Significations given to old Words, used by such author, and his Sect: the whole Philosophy of such Sect, together with the Connections and Dependencies of its several Parts, whether Logical, Ethical, or Physical; He I say, that, without this previous preparation, attempts what I have said, will shoot in the dark; will be liable to perpetual blunders; will explain, and praise, and censure merely by chance; and though he may possibly to Fools appear as a wise Man, will certainly among the wise ever pass for a Fool. Such a Man's Intellect comprehends ancient Philosophy, as his Eve comprehends a distant Prospect. He may see perhaps enough, to know Mountains from Plains, and Seas from Woods; but for an accurate discernment of particulars, and their character, this without farther helps, it is impossible he should attain.

But they may be used also κατὰ σύνθεσιν. Ch. III. by way of Composition, that is, they may be prefixt to a Word, so as to become a real Part of it (e). Thus in Greek we have Επίζασθαι, in Latin, Intelligere, in English, to Understand. So also, to foretel, to overact, to undervalue, to outgo, &c. and in Greek and Latin, other instances innumerable. In this case the Prepositions commonly transfuse something of their own Meaning into the Word, with which they are compounded; and this imparted Meaning in most instances will be found ultimately resolvable into some of the Relations of PLACE, (n) as used either in its proper or metaphorical acceptation.

LASTLY,

⁽e) See Gaz. Gram. L. IV. Cap. de Præpositione.

For example, let us suppose some given Space. E and Ex signify out of that Space; Per, through it, from beginning to end; In, within it; Sun, under it. Hence then

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l ASTLY, there are times, when Pretions totally lose their connective Nature,

E and Pen in composition augment: Enormis, hing not simply big, but big in excess; something and of the rule, and beyond the measure; Dico, to Edico, to speak out; whence Edictum, an Edict, something so effectually spoken, as all are supposed to hear, and all to obey. So Terence,

Dico, Edico vobis-Eun. V. 5. 20.

which (as Donatus tells us in his Comment) is an "Autoria. Fart, to speak; Effart, to speak out—hence Effatum, an Axiom, or self-evident Proposition, something addressed as it were to all men, and calling for universal Assent. Cic. Acad. M. 29. Permagnus, Perutilis, great throughout, useful through every part.

On the contrary, In and Sun diminish and lessen. Injustus, Iniquus, unjust, inequitable, that lies within Justice and Equity, that reaches not so far, that falls short of them; Subniger, blackish; Subrubicundus, reddish; tending to black, and tending to red, but yet under the standard, and below perfection.

Emo originally signified to take accay; hence it came to signify to buy, because he, who buys, takes accay his purchase. Inter, Between, implies Discontinuance,

Nature, being converted into Adverbs, and used in Syntax accordingly. Thus Homer,

Ch. III.

- -Γέλασσε δὲ πᾶσα ωερὶ χθών.
- -And earth smil'd all around.

Iλ. T. 36**2**.

But of this we have spoken in a preceding Chapter (8). One thing we must however observe, before we finish this Chapter, which is, that whatever we may be told of Cases in modern Languages, there are in fact no such things; but their force and power is exprest by

for in things continuous there can nothing lie between. From these two comes, Interimo, to kill, that is to say, To take a Man away in the midst of Life, by making a Discontinuance of his vital Energy. So also, Perimo, to kill a Man, that is to say, to take him away thoroughly; for indeed what more thorough taking away can well be supposed? The Greek Verb, 'Aranguin, and the English Verb, To take off, seem both to carry the same allusion. And thus it is that Prepositions become Parts of other Words.

⁽c) See before, p. 2Q5.

Ch. III. two Methods, either by Situation, or by Prepositions; the Nominative and Accusative Cases by Situation; the rest, by Prepositions. But this we shall make the Subject of a Chapter by itself, concluding here our Inquiry concerning Prepositions.

CHAP. IV.

Concerning Cases.

AS'CASES, or at least their various Ch. IV. Powers, depend on the knowledge partly of Nouns, partly of Verbs, and partly of Prepositions; they have been reserved, till those Parts of Speech had been examined and discussed, and are for that reason made the Subject of so late a Chapter, as the present.

THERE are no Cases in the modern Languages, except a few among the primitive Pronouns, such as I and Me; Je, and Moy; and the English Genitive, formed by the addition of s, as when from Lion, we form Lion's; from Ship, Ship's. From this defect however we may be enabled to discover in some instances what a Case is, the Periphratis,

Ch. IV. sis, which supplies its place, being the Case (as it were) unfolded. Thus Equi is analized into Du Cheval, Of the Horse, Equo into Au Cheval, To the Horse.—
And hence we see that the Genitive and Dative Cases imply the joint Power of a Noun and a Preposition, the Genitive's Preposition being A, De, or Ex, the Dative's Preposition being Ad, or Versus.

WE have not this assistance as to the Accusative, which in modern Languages (a few instances excepted) is only known from its position, that is to say, by being subsequent to its Verb, in the collocation of the words.

THE VOCATIVE we pass over from its little use, being not only unknown to the modern Languages, but often in the antient being supplied by the Nominative.

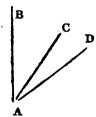
THE ABLATIVE likewise was used by the Romans only; a Case they seem

1 to



to have adopted to associate with their Prepositions, as they had deprived their Genitive and Dative of that privilege; a Case certainly not necessary, because the Greeks do as well without it, and because with the Romans themselves it is frequently undistinguished.

THERE remains the Nominative; which whether it were a Case or no, was much disputed by the Antients. The Peripatetics held it to be no Case, and likened the Noun, in this its primary and original Form, to a perpendicular Line, such for example, as the line AB.



The Variations from the Nominative, they considered as if AB were to fall from its perpendicular, as for example, to AC, or AD. Hence then they only T3 called

. ;

Ch. IV. called these Variations ΠΤΩΣΕΙΣ, CASUS. CASES, OF FALLINGS. The Stoics on the contrary, and the Grammarians with them, made the Nominative a CASE Words they considered (as it were) to fall from the Mind, or discur-Now when a Noun fell sive Faculty. thence in its primary Form, they then called it HTOSIS OPOH, CASUS RECTUS. AN ERECT, OF UPRIGHT CASE OF FALL-ING, such as AB, and by this name they distinguished the Nominative .-When it fell from the Mind under any of its variations, as for example in the form of a Genitive, a Dative, or the like, such variations they called ΠΤΩΣΕΙΣ HAAFIAI, CASUS OBLIQUI, OBLIQUE Cases, or side-long Fallings (such as AC, or AD) in opposition to the other (that is AB) which was erect and perpendicular(a). Hence too Grammarians called the Method of enumerating the various Cases of a Noun, KAIDID, Declinatio, a Declension, it being

⁽a) See Ammon. in Libr. de Interpr. p. 35.

ing a sort of progressive Descent from Ch. IV. the Noun's upright Form thro' its various declining Forms, that is, a Descent from AB, to AC, AD, &c.

OF these Cases we shall treat but of four, that is to say, the Nominative, the Accusative, the Genitive, and the Dative.

It has been said already in the preceding Chapter, that the great Objects of natural Union are Substance and Attribute. Now from this Natural Concord arises the Logical Concord of Subject and Predicate, and the Grammatical Concord of Substantive and Attributive^(b). These Concords in Speech produce Propositions and Sentences, as that previous Concord in Nature produces Natural Beings. This being admitted,

⁽b) See before, p. 264.

Homo est animal, &c. When it has Ch.1 no Cases, (as happens with Verbs) it is forced to content itself with such assimilations as it has, those of Number and Person*; as when we say, Cicero Loquitur; nos Loquimur; Homines Loquinur.

From what has been said, we may make the following observations—that as there can be no Sentence without a Substantive, so that Substantive, if the Sentence be regular, is always denoted by a Nominative—that on this occasion all the Attributives, that have Cases, appear as Nominatives also—that there may be a regular and perfect Sentence without any of the other Cases, but that without one Nominative at least, this is utterly impossible. Hence therefore we form its Character and Description—THE NOMINATIVE is that Case, without which

^{*} What sort of Number and Person Verbs have, see before, p. 170, 171.

Ch. IV. which there can be no regular(e) and perfect Sentence. We are now to search after another Case.

WHEN the Attributive in any Sentence is some Verb denoting Action, we may be assured the principal Substantive is some active efficient Cause. So we may call Achilles and Lysippus in such Sentences as Achilles vulneravit, Lysippus fecit. But though this be evident and clearly understood, the Mind is still in suspence, and finds its conception incomplete. Action, it well knows, not only requires some Agent, but it must have a Subject also to work on, and it must produce some Effect. It is then to denote one of these (that is, the Subject or the Effect) that the Authors

of

⁽c) We have added regular as well as perfect, because there may be irregular Sentences, which may be perfect without a Nominative. Of this kind are all Sentences, made out of those Verbs, called by the Stoics Παρασυμζάματα οτ Παρακατηγορήματα, such as Σωκράτει μετάμελει, Socratem panitet, &c. See before, p. 180.

of Language have destined THE Accu- ICh. IV. Achilles vulneravit HECTO-SATIVE. REM—here the Accusative denotes the Subject. Lysippus fecit STATUAS here the Accusative denotes the Effect. By these additional Explanations the Mind becomes satisfied, and the Sentences acquire a Perfection, which before they wanted. In whatever other manner, whether figuratively, or with Prepositions, this Case may have been used, its first destination seems to have been that here mentioned, and hence therefore we shall form its Character and Description—THE ACCUSATIVE is that Case, which to an efficient Nominative and a Verb of Action subjoins either the Effect or the passive Subject. We have still left the Genitive and the Dative, which we investigate, as follows.

It has been said in the preceding Chapter^(d), that when the Places of the Nomi

⁽d. See before, p. 265.

by proper Substantives, other Substantives are annexed by the help of Prepositions. Now, though this be so far true in the modern Languages, that (a very few instances excepted) they know no other method, yet is not the rule of equal latitude with respect to the Latin or Greek, and that from reasons which we are about to offer.

AMONG the various Relations of Substantives denoted by Prepositions, there appear to be two principal ones; and these are, the Term or Point, which something commences FROM, and the Term or Point, which something tends These Relations the Greeks and Latins thought of so great importance, as to distinguish them, when they occurred, by peculiar Terminations of their own, which exprest their force, without the help of a Prepo-Now it is here we behold the sition. Rise of the antient Genitive, and Dative,



BOOK THE SECOND.

press all relations commencing from itself; THE DATIVE, all Relations tending to itself. Of this there can be no stronger proof, than the Analysis of these Cases in the modern Languages, which we have mentioned already.

IT is on these Principles that they say in Greek—Δεομαί ΣΟΤ, δίδωμί ΣΟΙ, ΟΓ thee I ask, To thee I give. The reason is, in requests the person requested is one whom something is expected from; in donations, the person presented, is one whom something passes to. So again—(I) Πεποίηται λίθε, it is made of Stone. Stone was the passive Subject, and thus it appears in the Genitive, as being the Term from, or out of which. Even in Latin, where the Syntax is more formal and strict, we read—

Implentur

⁽e) See before, p. 275, 276.

⁽f) Xevovi winomulios, n illoands, made of Gold and Lory. So says Pausanias of the Olympian Jupiter, L. V. p. 400. See also Hom. Iliad. 2. 574.

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Implentur veteris Bacchi, pinguisque for rina. Virg.

The old Wine and Venison were the funds or stores, of or from which they were filled. Upon the same principles, Πίνω τε θδατος, is a Phrase in Greek; and Je bois de l'eau, a Phrase in French, as much as to say, I take some or a certain part, FROM OF OUT OF a certain whole.

WHEN we meet in Language such Genitives as the Son of a Father; the Father of a Son; the Picture of a Painter; the Painter of a Picture, &c. these are all Relatives, and therefore each of them reciprocally a Term or Point to the other, from or out of which it derives its Essence, or at least its Intellection. (g)

THE



⁽a) All Relatives are said to reciprocate, or mutually infer each other, and therefore they are often exprest by this Case, that is to say, the Genitive. Thus Aristotle, Πάνλα δὲ τὰ ϖgός τι ϖgός ἀνλιςείφονλα λίγιται οἶοι ὁ δῦλ. δεσ-

THE Dative, as it implies Tendency to, is employed among its other uses to denote the Final Cause, that being the Cause to which all Events, not fortuitous, may be said to tend. It is thus used in the following instances, among innumerable others.

——Tibi suaveis dædala tellus
Submittit flores— Lucret.

TIBI brachia contrahit ardens
Scorpius— Virg. G. I.

——TIBI serviat ultima Thule.

Ibid.

AND so much for Cases, their Origin and Use; a Sort of Forms, or Terminations,

[#]ότε δελ, κ, ό δισπότης δελε δισπότης λίγεται είναι, κ, τό διπλάσιον ήμίσι. διπλάσιον, κ, τό ήμισυ διπλασίε ήμισυ. Omnia vero, quæ sunt ad aliquid, referentur ad ea, quæ reciprocantur. Ut servus dicitur domini servus; ct dominus, servi dominus; necnon duplum, dimidii duplum; ct
dimidium, dupli dimidium. Categor. C. VII.

over, from their great importance (a) both in the Greek and Latin Tongues; but which however, not being among the Essentials of Language, and therefore not to be found in many particular Languages, can be hardly said to fall within the limits of our Inquiry.

CHAP.

(h) Annon et illud observatione dignum (licet nobis modernis spiritus nonnihil redundat) antiquas Linguas plenas declinationum, casuum, conjugationum, et similium fuisse; modernas, his ferè destitutas, plurima per prapositiones et verba auxiliaria segnitèr expedire? Sanè facilè quis cozsiciat (utcunque nobis ipsi placeamus) ingenia priorum seculorum nostris fuisse multo acutiora et subtiliora. Bacon. de Augm. Scient. VI. 1.



CHAP. V.

Concerning Interjections—Recapitulation
—Conclusion.

BESIDES the Parts of Speech before Ch. v. mentioned, there remains THE INTER-Of this Kind among the JECTION. Greeks are $^{3}\Omega$, $\Phi \epsilon \vec{v}$, A₁, &c. among the Latins, Ah! Heu! Hei! &c. among the English, Ah! Alas! Fie! &c. These the Greeks have ranged among their Adverbs; improperly, if we consider the Adverbial Nature, which always coincides with some Verb, as its Principal, and to which it always serves in the character of an Attributive. Now IN-TERJECTIONS co-incide with no Part of Speech, but are either uttered alone, or else thrown into a Sentence, without altering its Form, either in Syntax or Signification. The Latins seem therefore to have done better in+ separating them by themselves.

⁺ Vid. Servium in Æneid XII. v. 486.

Ch. V. themselves, and giving them a name by way of distinction from the rest.

Should it be ask'd, if not Adverbs, what then are they? It may be answered, not so properly Parts of Speech, as adventitious Sounds; certain Voices of Nature, rather than Voices of Art, expressing those Passions and natural Emotions, which spontaneously arise in the human Soul, upon the View or Narrative of interesting Events(a).

" AND

⁽e) Interjectiones a Græcis ad Adverbia referuntur, atque eos sequitur etiam Boethius. Et recte quidem de iis, quando casum regunt. Sed quando orationi solum inseruntur, ut nota affectûs, velut suspirii aut metûs, vix videntur ad classem aliquam pertinere, ut quæ naturales sint notæ; non, aliarum vocum instar, ex instituto significant. Voss. de Anal. L. I. c. 1. Interjectio est Vox affectum mentis significans, ac citra verbi opem sententism complens. Ibid. c. 3. Restat classium extrema, Interjectio. Hujus appellatio non similiter se habet ac Conjunctionis.

"And thus we have found that ALL "Words are either significant "BY THEMSELVES, OR ONLY SIGNI-U2 "FICANT,

Ch. V.

junctionis. Nam cum hac dicatur Conjunctio, quia conjungat; Interjectio tamen, non quia interjacet, sed quia interjicitur, nomen accepit. Nec tamen de goia ejus est, ut interjiciatur; cum per se compleat sententiam, nec raro ab ea incipiat oratio. Ibid. L. IV. c. 28. INTERJECTIO-NEM non esse partem Orationis sic ostendo: Quod naturale est, idem est apud omnes: Sed gemitus & signu lætitia idem sunt apud omnes: Sunt igitur naturales. Si vero naturales, non sunt partes Orationis. Nam eæ partes, secundum Aristotelem, ex instituto, non nutura, debent constare. Interjectionem Graci Adverbiis adnumerant: sed falso. Nam neque, &c. Sanct. Miner. L. I. c. 2. INTERJECTIONEM Graci inter Adverbia ponunt, quoniam hæc quoque vel adjungitur verbis, vel verba ei subaudiuntur. Ut si dicam-Papæ! quid video?-vel per se-Papæ!-etiamsi non addatur, Miror; habet in se ipsius verbi significationem. Quæ res maxime fecit Romanarum artium Scriptores separatim hanc partem ab Adverbiis accipere; quia videtur affectum habere in sese Verbi, et plenam motus animi significationem, etiamsi non addatur Verbum, demonstrare. Interjectio tamen non solum illa, quæ dicunt Graci σχετλιασμόν, significat; sed etiam voces, qua cujuscunque passionis animi pulsu per exclumationem interjiciuntur. Prisc. L. XV.

" FICANT, WHEN ASSOCIATED—that those significant by themselves, denote " either Substances or Attributes. " and are called for that reason Sub-"STANTIVES and ATTRIBUTIVES-" that the Substantives are either Nouns "or PRONOUNS—that the ATTRIBU-"TIVES are either PRIMARY or SE-CONDANT—that the Primary Attributives are either VERBS, PARTICI-MPLES, or ADJECTIVES: the Secon-- dary Adverse-Again, that the Parts of Speech, only significant when " associated, are either Definitives " or Connectives-that the Defini-"tives are either ARTICULAR or Pro-" NOMINAL—and that the Connectives "are either PREPOSITIONS or Con-"JUNCTIONS."

And thus have we resolved Lan-GUAGE, AS A WHOLE INTO ITS CON-STITUENT PARTS, which was the first thing thing, that we proposed, in the course Ch. of this Inquiry. (b)

Ch. V.

But now as we conclude, methinks I hear some Objector, demanding with . an air of pleasantry, and ridicule-" Is "there no speaking then without all this "trouble? Do we not talk every one of " us, as well unlearned, as learned; as " well poor Peasants, as profound Philo-"sophers?" We may answer by interrogating on our part-Do not those same poor Peasants use the Lever and the Wedge, and many other Instruments, with much habitual readiness? And yet have they any conception of those Geometrical Principles, from which those Machines derive their Efficacy and Force? And is the Ignorance of these Peasants, a reason for others to remain ignorant; or to render the Subject a less becoming Inquiry? Think of Animals, and Vegetables, that

(6) See before, p. 7.

cellent for the gauging of Liquors; Ch. V. Geometry, for the measuring of Estates: Astronomy, for the making of Almanacks; and Grammar perhaps, for the drawing of Bonds and Conveyances.

THUS much to the Sordid-If the Liberal ask for something better than this, we may answer and assure them from the best authorities, that every Exercise of the Mind upon Theorems of Science, like generous and manly Exercise of the Body, tends to call forth and strengthen Nature's original Vigour. Be the Subject itself immediately lucrative or not, the Nerves of Reason are braced by the mere Employ, and we become abler Actors in the Drama of Life, whether our Part be of the busier, or of the sedater kind.

> PERHAPS U 4

Ch. V.

PERHAPS too there is a Pleasure even in Science itself, distinct from any End, to which it may be farther conducive. Are not Health and Strength of Body desirable for their own sakes, tho' we happen not to be fated either for Porters or Draymen; And have not Health and Strength of Mind their intrinsic Worth also, the' not condemned to the low drudgery of sordid Emolument? Why should there not be a Good (could we have the Grace toreeognize it) in the mere Energy of our Intellect, as much as in Energies of lower degree? The Sportsman believes there is Good in his Chace; the Man of Gaiety, in his Intrigue; even the Glutton, in his Meal. We may justly ask of these, why they pursue such things; but if they answer, they pursue them, because they are Good, it would be folly to ask them farther, WHY they PURSUE what is Good. It might well in such case be replied on their

their behalf (how strange soever it may at first appear) that if there was not something Good, which was in no respect useful, even things useful themselves could not possibly have existence. For this is in fact no more than to assert, that some things are Ends, some things are Means, and that if there were no Ends, there could be of course no Means.

It should seem then the Grand Question was, what is Good—that is to say, what is that which is desirable, not for something else, but for itself; for whether it be the Chace, or the Intrigue, or the Meal, may be fairly questioned, since Men in each instance are far from being agreed,

In the mean times is plain from daily experience, there are infinite Pleasures, Amusements, and Diversions, some for Summer, others for Winter; some for Country,

Ch. V. Country, others for Town; some, easy, indolent, and soft; others, boisterous, active, and rough; a multitude diversified to every taste, and which for the time are enjoyed as PERFECT Good, without a thought of any End, that may be farther obtained. Some Objects of this kind are at times sought by all men, excepting alone that contemptible Tribe, who, from a love to the Means of life wholly forgetting its End, are truly for that reason called Misers, or Miserable.

If there be supposed then a Pleasure, a Satisfaction, a Good, a Something valuable for its self without view to any thing farther, in so many Objects of the subordinate kind; shall we not allow the same praise to the sublimest of all Objects? Shall the Intellect alone feel no pleasures in its Energy, when we allow them to the grossest Energies of Appetite, and Sense? Or if the Reality of all Pleasures and Goods were

to be controverted, may not the Intellectual Sort be defended, as rationally as any of them? Whatever may be urged in behalf of the rest (for we are not now arraigning them) we may safely affirm of INTELLECTUAL Good, that it is "the Goodof that Part, which is "most excellent within us; that it is a "Good accommodated to all Places "and Times; which neither depends "on the will of others, nor on the affilience of external Fortune; that it "is a Good, which decays not with "decaying Appetites, but often rises "in vigour, when those are no more. (d)"

THERE is a Difference, we must own, between this Intellectual Virtue, and Moral Virtue. MORAL VIRTUE, from its Employment, may be called more HUMAN, as it tempers our Appetites

⁽d) Sec Vol. I. p. 119, 120, &c.

300 car. peales to the purposes of human Life.

But ISTELLECTUAL VIRTUE may be surely called more Divine, if we consider the Nature and Sublimity of its gad.

THE CHARLEST WILLIAM

INDEED for Moral Virtue, as it is almost wholly conversant about Appetites, and Affections, either to reduce the natural ones to a proper Mean, or totally to expel the unnatural and vitious, it would be impious to suppose THE DEITY to have occasion for such an Habit, or that any work of this kind should call for his attention. Yet God Is, and Lives. So we are assured from Scripture it self. What then may we suppose the DIVINE LIFE to be? Not a Life of Sleep, as Fables tell us of Endymion. If we may be allowed then to conjecture with a becoming reverence, what more likely, than A PERPETUAL ENERGY OF THE PUREST INTELLECT ABOUT

ABOUT THE FIRST, ALL-COMPREHEN- Ch. V. SIVE OBJECTS OF INTELLECTION, WHICH OBJECTS ARE NO OTHER THAN THAT INTELLECT ITSELF? For in pure Intellection it holds the reverse of all Sensation, that the perceiver and Thing perceived are always one and the same (c).

IT was Speculation of this kind concerning THE DIVINE NATURE, which induced

Ch. V. induced one of the wisest among the Ancients to believe-"That the Man, "who could live in the pure enjoyment of his Mind, and who properly cultivated that divine Principle, was " happiest in himself, and most beloved by " the Gods. For if the Gods had any "regard to what passed among Men " (as it appeared they had) it was pro-"bable they should rejoice in that " which was most excellent, and by na-"ture the most nearly allied to them-" selves; and, as this was MIND, that "they should requite the Man, who "most loved and honoured This, both "from his regard to that which was " dear to themselves, and from his act-"ing a Part, which was laudable and " right (f)."

And

To the passage above quoted, may be added another, which immediately precedes it. 'Autor de voet o ves xetà μετάληψιν το νοητο: νοητος γάς γίνεται, Βιγίανων κ, νουν ώσε ΤΑΥΤΌΝ ΝΟΥΣ ΚΑΙ ΝΟΗΤΟΝ.

^{(1) &#}x27;Haix' Nixopax' To K', xip, n.

BOOK THE SECOND.

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AND thus in all SCIENCE there is Ch. V. something valuable for itself, because it contains within it something which is divine.

END OF THE SECOND BOOK.

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HERMES

OR

A PHILOSOPHICAL ENQUIRY

CONCERNING

UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR.

BOOK III.

CHAP. I.

Introduction—Division of the Subject into its principal Parts.

SOME things the MIND performs Ch.I. thro' the Body; as for example the various Works and Energies of Art.— Others it performs without such Medium; as for example, when it thinks, and reasons, and concludes. Now the' the Mind, in either case, may be called the Principle or Source, yet are these last X

HERMES.

Ch. 1.

more properly its own peculiar Acts, as being immediately referable to its own innate Powers. And thus is Mind ultimately the Cause of all; of every thing at least that is Fair and Good.

Among those Acts of Mind more immediately its own, that of mental Separation may be well reckoned one .-Corporeal Separations, however accurate otherwise, are in one respect incomplete, as they may be repeated without end. The smallest Limb, severed from the smallest Animalcule (if we could suppose any instrument equal to such dissection) has still a triple Extension of length, breadth, and thickness; has a figure, a colour, with perhaps many other qualities; and so will continue to have, tho' thus divided to infinity. But (a) the Mind surmounts all power of Concretion,

⁽a) Itaque Naturæ facienda est prorsus Solutio & Septratio; non per Ignem certe, sed per Mentem, tanquam ignem divinum. Bacon. Organ. Lib. II. 16.

ï

manner every Attribute by itself, convex without concave; colour without superficies; superficies without Body; and Body without its Accidents; as distinctly each one, as tho' they had never been united.

AND thus it is that it penetrates into the recesses of all things, not only dividing them, as Wholes, into their more conspicuous Parts, but persisting, till it even separate those Elementary Principles, which, being blended together after a more mysterious manner, are united in the minutest Part, as much as in the mightiest Whole. (b)

Now if MATTER and FORM are among these Elements, and deserve perhaps to be esteemed as the principal among them, it may not be foreign to the Design of this Treatise, to seek whether

(b) See below, p. 312.

ther these, or any thing analogous to them, may be found in Speech or Lasguage. (c) This therefore we shall attempt after the following method.

EVERY

(c) See before, p. 2. 7. MATTER and FORM (in Greek ΥΛΗ and ΕΙΔΟΣ) were Terms of great import in the days of antient Philosophy, when things were scrutinized rather at their beginning than at their End. They have been but little regarded by modern Philosophy, which almost wholly employs itself about the last order of Substance, that is to say, the tangible, corpored or concrete, and which acknowledges no separations even in this, but those made by mathematical Instruments or Chemical Process.

The original meaning of the Word YAH, was SYLVA, a WOOD. Thus Homer,

--- Τείμε δ' ἔξεα μακεὰ κὶ ΥΛΗ, Ποσσὶν ὑπ' ἀθανάτοισι Ποσειδάωνος ἰδιτος.

As Neptune past, the Mountains and the Wood Trembled beneath the God's immortal Feet.

Hence as Wood was perhaps the first and most useful kind of Materials, the Word "The, which denoted it, came to be by degrees extended, and at length to denote MATTER OF MATERIALS in general. In this sense Brass was called the The or Matter of a Statue; Stone, the

Every thing in a manner, whether natural or artificial, is in its constitution com-

TAN or Matter of a Pillar; and so in other instances.— The Platonic Chalcidius, and other Authors of the latter Latinity use Sylva under the same extended and comprehensive Signification.

Now as the Species of Matter here mentioned, (Stone, Metal, Wood, &c.) occur most frequently in common life, and are all nothing more than natural Substances or Bodies, hence by the Vulgar, MATTER and BODY have been taken to denote the same thing; Material to mean Corporeal; Immaterial, Incorporeal, &c. But this was not the Sentiment of Philosophers of old, by whom the Term Matter was seldom used under so narrow an acceptation. By these, every thing was called TAH, or MATTER, whether corporeal or incorporeal, which was capable of becoming something else, or of being moulded into something else, whether from the operation of Art, of Nature, or a higher Cause.

In this sense they not only called Brass the "Tan of a Statue, and Timber of a Boat, but Letters and Syllables they called the "That of Words; Words or simple Terms, the That of Propositions; and Propositions themselves the "That of Syllogisms. The Stoics held all things out of our own power (Từ sắx iệ ' ກັມັ) such as Wealth and Poverty, Honour and Dishonour, Health and Sickness, Life Ch. I.

compounded of something Common, and something Peculiar; of something

Life and Death, to be the YAZI, or Materials of Virtue or Moral Goodness, which had its essence in a proper conduct with respect to all these, (Vid. Arr. Epict. L. 1. c. 29. Also Vol. the first of these miscellaneous Treatises, p. 187, 309. M. Ant. XII. 29. VII. 29. X. 18, 19. where the Thinks and Airiages are opposed to each other.) The Peripatetics, tho' they expressly held the Soul to be acompares, or Incorporeal, yet still talked of a Nes Things, a material Mind or Intellect .-This to modern Ears may possibly sound somewhat harshly. Yet if we translate the Words, Natural Capacity, and consider them as only denoting that original and native Power of Intellection, which being previous to all human Knowledge, is yet necessary to its reception; there seems nothing then to remain, that can give us offence. And so much for the Idea of TAH, or MAT-TER. See Alex. Aphrod. de Anim. p. 144. b. 145. Arist. Metaph. p. 121, 122, 141. Edit. Sylb. Procl. in Euclid. p. 22, 23.

As to EIAOE, its original meaning was that of Form or Figure, considered as denoting visible Symmetry, and Proportion; and hence it had its name from Elasto see, Beauty of person being one of the noblest and most excellent Objects of Sight. Thus Euripides,

Πεῶτον μεν Είδος αξιον τος anidos.
Fair Form to Empire gave the first pretence.

thing Common, and belonging to many other things; and of something Peculiar, X 4 by

Ch. I.

Now as the Form or Figure of visible Beings tended principally to distinguish them, and to give to each its Name and Essence; hence in a more general sense, whatever of any kind (whether corporeal or incorporeal) was peculiar, essential, and distinctive, so as by it accession to any Beings, as to its "nan or Matter, to mark them with a Character, which they had not before, was called by the Antients EIAOE or FORM. Thus not only the Shape given to the Brass was called the Eldos or Form of the Statue; but the Proportion assigned to the Drugs was the Eldos or Form of the Medicine; the orderly Motion of the human Body was the Eldes or Form of the Dance; the just Arrangement of the Propositions, the Eldos or Form of the Syllogism. In like manner the rational and accurate Conduct of a wise and good man, in all the various Relations and Occurrences of life, made that Elds or Form, described by Cicero to his Son,— FORMAM quidam ipsam, Marce fili, et tanquam faciem Honesti vides: qua, si oculis cerneretur, mirabiles amores (ut ait Plato) excitaret sapientiæ, &c. De Offic. I.

We may go farther still—THE SUPREME INTELLIGENCE, which passes thro' all things, and which is the same to our Capacities, as Light is to our Eyes, this supreme Intelligence has been called ΕΙΔΟΣ ΕΙΔΩΝ, THE FORM OF FORMS, as being the Fountain of all Symmetry, of all Good, and of all Truth; and as imparting to every

Ch. I. by which it is distinguished, and made to be its true and proper self.

HENCE

Being those essential and distinctive Attributes, which make it to be itself, and not any thing else.

And so much concerning FORM, as before concerning MATTER. We shall only add, that it is in the uniting of these, that every thing generable begins to exist; in their separating, to perish, and be at an end-that while the two co-exist, they co-exist not by juxta-position, like the stones in a wall, but by a more intimate Coincidence, complete in the minutest part-that hence, if we were to persist in dividing any substance (for example Marble) to infinity, there would still remain after every section both Matter and Form, and these as perfectly united, as before the Division began-lastly, that they are both pre-existent to the Beings, which they constitute; the Matter being to be found in the world at large; the Form, if artificial, pre-existing within the Artificer, or if natural, within the supreme Course, the Sovereign Artist of the Universe,

-Pulchrum pulcherrimus ipse

Mundum mente gerens, similique in imagine formans.

Even without speculating so high as this, we may see among all animal and vegetable Substances, the Form pre-existing in their immediate generating Cause; Oak being the parent of Oak, Lion of Lion, Man of Man, &c.

Cicero's

Hence Language, if compared according to this notion to the murmurs of a Fountain, or the dashings of a Cataract, has in common this, that like them, it is a Sound. But then on the contrary

Cicero's account of these Principles is as follows.

MATTER.

Sed subjectam putant omnibus sine ulla specie, atque carentem omni illa qualitate (faciamus enim tractando usitatius hoc verbum et tritius) MATERIAM quandam, ex quá omnia expressa atque efficta sint: (qua tota omnia accipere possit, omnibusque modis mutari atque ex omni parte) eòque etiam interire, non in nihilum, &c.—Acad. I. 8:

FORM.

Sed ego sic statuo, nihil esse in ullo genere tam pulchrum, quo non pulchrius id sit, unde illud, ut ex ore aliquo, quasi imago, exprimatur, quod neque oculis, neque auribus, neque ullo sensu percipi potest: cogitatione tantùm et mente complectimur.—Has reque properti dicas ille non intelligendi solum, sed etiam dicendi gravissimus auctor et magister, Plato: easque gigni negat, et ait semper esse, ac ratione et intelligentis contineri: catera nasci, occidere, fluere, labi; nec diutiùs esse uno et eodem statu. Quidquid est igitur, de quo ratione et viù disputetur, id est ad ultimam sui generis Formam speciemque ridigendum, Cic. ad M. Brut. Orat.

contrary it has in peculiar this, that whereas those Sounds have no Meaning or Signification, to Language a Meaning or Signification, to Language a Meaning or Signification is essential.— Again, Language, if compared to the Voice of irrational Animals, has in common this, that like them, it has a Meaning. But then it has this in peculiar to distinguish it from them, that whereas the Meaning of those Animal Sounds is derived from Nature, that of Language is derived, not from Nature, but from Compact. (d)

FROM

⁽d) The Peripatetics (and with just reason) in all their definitions as well of Words as of Sentences, made it a part of their character to be significant xarà συθήκη, by Compact. See Aristot. de Interp. c. 2. 4. Boethus translates the Words xarà συθήκη, ad placitum, or secundum placitum, and thus explains them in his comment.—Secundum placitum vero est, quod secundum quandam positionem, placitumque ponentis aptatur; nullum enim nomen naturaliter constitutum est, neque unquam, sicut subjecta res à naturá est, ita quoque a naturá veniente vocabulo nuncupatur. Sed hominum genus, quod et rutione, et oratione rigeret, nomina posuit, eaque quibus libuit

BOOK THE THIRD.

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Ch. I.

FROM hence it becomes evident, that LANGUAGE, taken in the most comprehensive view, implies certain Sounds, having certain Meanings; and that of these two Principles, the SOUND is as the MATTER, common (like other Matter) to many different things; the MEANING as that peculiar and characteristic FORM, by which the Nature or Essence of Language becomes complete.

CHAP.

libuit literis syllabisque conjungens, singulis subjectarum rerum substantiis dedit. Boeth. in Lib. de Interpret, p. 308.

CHAP. II.

Upon the Matter, or common Subject of Language.

Ch. II. THE TAH OF MATTER OF LANGUAGE comes first to be considered, a Subject, which Order will not suffer us to omit, but in which we shall endeavour to be as concise as we can. Now this TAH of Matter is Sound, and Sound is that Sensation peculiar to the Sense of Hearing, when the Air hath felt a Percussion, adequate to the producing such Effect. (a)

As

⁽a) This appears to be Priscian's Meaning when he says of a Voice, what is more properly true of Sound in general, that it is—suum sensibile aurium, id est, quod propriè auribus accidit. Lib. I. p. 537.

The following account of the Stoics, which refers the cause of Sound to an Undulation in the Air propagated circularly, as when we drop a stone into a Cistern of water,

As the Causes of this Percussion are Ch. II. various, so from hence Sound derives the Variety of its Species.

FARTHER, as all these Causes are either Animal or Inanimate, so the two grand Species of Sounds are likewise Animal or Inanimate.

THERE is no peculiar Name for Sound Inanimate; nor even for that of Animals, when made by the trampling of their Feet, the fluttering of their Wings, or any other Cause, which is merely

water, seems to accord with the modern Hypothesis, and to be as plausible as any-'Ακούτιο δέ, τῶ μεταξὺ τῶ τε Φωνούντος κὶ τὰ ἀκάσυνος ἀίξος ωληνίομένα σφαιζοειδώς, ἔιτα χυματουμίνε, κὶ ταις άκοαις προσπίπθοντος, ώς χυματέται τὸ έν τη δεξαμενή υδως κατά κύκλους ύπο τε εμεληθέντος λίθε-Porrò audire, cum is, qui medius inter loquentem, et audientem est, aër verberatur orbiculariter, deinde agitatus auribus influit, quemadmodum et cisternæ aqua per orbes Injecto agitatur lapide. Diog. Laert. VII.

Ch. II. merely accidental. But that, which they make by proper Organs, in consequence of some Sensation or inward Impulse, such Animal Sound is called a VOICE.

As Language therefore implies that Sound called Human Voice; we may perceive that to know the Nature and Powers of the Human Voice, is in fact to know the Matter or common Subject of Language.

Now the Voice of Man, and it should seem of all other Animals, is formed by certain Organs between the Mouth and the Lungs, and which Organs maintain the intercourse between these two. The Lungs furnish Air, out of which the Voice is formed; and the Mouth, when the Voice is formed, serves to publish it abroad.

What these Vocal Organs precisely are, is not in all respects agreed by Philo-



Philosophers and Anatomists. Be this as it will, it is certain that the mere primary and simple Voice is completely formed, before ever it reach the Mouth, and can therefore (as well as Breathing) find a Passage thro' the Nose, when the Mouth is so far stopt, as to prevent the least utterance.

Now pure and simple Voice, being thus produced, is (as before was observed) transmitted to the Mouth. HERE then, by means of certain different Organs, which do not change its primary Qualities, but only superadd others, it receives the Form or Character of ARTI-CULATION. For ARTICULATION is in fact nothing else, than that Form or Character, acquired to simple Voice, by means of the Mouth and its several Organs, the Teeth, the Tongue, the Lips, &c. The Voice is not by Articulation made more grave or acute, more loud or soft (which are its primary Qualities)

ters certain others additional, which are perfectly adapted to exist along with them. (b)

THE

(6) The several Organs above mentioned not only seem the purposes of Speech, but those very different ones likewise of Mustication and Respiration; so frugal is Nature in thus assigning them double duty, and so careful to maintain her character of doing nothing in tain.

He, that would be informed, how much better the Parts here mentioned are framed for Discourse in Man, who is a Discourse Animal, than they are in other Animals, who are not so, may consult Aristotle in his Treatise de Animal. Part. Lib. II. c. 17. Lib. III. c. 1. 3. De Animá. L. II. c. 8. § 23, &c.

And here by the way, if such Inquirer be of a Genius truly modern, he may possibly wonder how the Philosopher, considering (as it is modestly phrased) the Age in which he lived, should know so much, and reason so well. But if he have any taste or value for antient literature, he may with much juster cause wonder at the Vanity of his Contemporaries, who dream all Philosophy to be the Invention of their own Age, knowing nothing of those. Antients still remaining for their perusal, tho' they are so ready on every occasion to give the preference to themselves.

The

THE simplest of these new Characters Ch. II. are those acquired thro' the mere Openings.

The following account from Ammonius will shew whence the Notions in this chapter are taken, and what authority we have to distinguish Voice from mere Sound; and ARTICULATE VOICE from SIMPLE VOICE.

Καὶ ΤΟΦΟΣ μὲν ἐςι ωληγη ἀίρος αἰσθητή ἀχοῆ. ΦΩΝΗ δὶ, 1 όρος εξ εμφυχε γινόμενος, όταν διά της συσολής το θώρακος εκθλιζόμενος ἀπὸ τε ωνεύμονος & είσπνευθείς ἀπε ωροσπίπη αθείως τη καλυμίνη τεαχεία derneia, κો τη υπιεώα, ήτοι τω γαργαριών, κὶ διὰ τῆς ωληγῆς ἀποτελή τινα ἦχον αἰσθητὸν, κατά τινα όρμην της ψυχής. όπις έπι των έμωνιυςών σαρά τοῖς μυσικοῖς καλυμένων δεγάνων συμβαίνει, διον αὐλῶν κὶ συείγγων της γλώτης, η των δδόντων, η χειλίων απρός μέν ΤΗΝ ΔΙΑΛΕΚΤΟΝ Εναγκαίων όντων, ευρος δε ΤΗΝ ΑΠΑΩΣ ΦΩΝΗΝ & φάντως συμβαλλομένως—Estque Sonus, ictus. ceris qui auditu sentitur: Vox autem est sonus, quem animans edit, cum per thoracis compressionem aer attractus a pulmone, elisus simul totus in arteriam, quam asperam vocant, et palatum, aut gurgulionem impingit, et ex ictu sonum quendam sensibilem pro animi quodam impetu perficit. Id quod in instrumentis quæ quia inflant, ideo λμπτιυς à a musicis dicuntur, usu venit, ut in tibiis, ac fistulis contingit, cum lingua, dentes, labiaque ad loquelam necessaria sint, ad vocem vero simplicem non omnino conferant. Ammon. in Lib. de Interpr. p. 25. b. Vid. etiam Boerhagoe Institut. Medic. Sect. 626. 630.

It appears that the Stoics (contrary to the notion of the ch.II. ings of the Mouth, as these Openings differ in giving the Voice a Passage. It is the Variety of Configurations in these Openings only, which gives birth and origin to the several Vowels; and hence it is they derive their Name, by being thus eminently Vocal, (c) and easy

to be sounded of themselves alone.

THERE are other articulate Forms, which the Mouth makes not by mere Openings, but by different Contacts of its different parts; such for instance, as it makes by the Junction of the two Lips,

the Peripetetics) used the word ΦΩΝΗ to denote Sound in general. They defined it therefore to be—To low diabator diabator diabator diabator, which justifies the definition given by Priscian, in the Note preceding. Animal Sound they defined to be—'Arg, υπό δεμάς ωπολυγμένος, Air struck (and so made audible) by some animal impulse; and Human or Rational Sound they defined—"Evagbeos if dai διανόιας εκπεμπομένη, Sound articulate and derived from the discursive faculty. Diog. Laert. VII. 55.

⁽e) OUNHENTA.

Lips, of the Tongue with the Teeth, of the Tongue with the Palate, and the like.

Ch. II.

Now as all these several Contacts, unless some Opening of the Mouth either immediately precede, or immediately follow, would rather occasion Silence, than to produce a Voice; hence it is, that with some such Opening, either previous or subsequent, they are always connected. Hence also it is, that the Articulations so produced are called Consonant, because they sound not of themselves, and from their own powers, but at all times in company with some auxiliary Vowel. (4)

THERE are other subordinate Distinctions of these primary Articulations, which to enumerate would be foreign to the design of this Treatise.

It is enough to observe, that they are Y 2 all

Ch.II. all denoted by the common Name of ELEMENT, (e) in as much as every Articulation of every other kind is from them derived, and into them resolved.

Under their smallest Combination they produce a Syllable; Syllables properly combined produce a Word; Words properly combined produce a Sentence; and Sentences properly combined pro-

duce an Oration or Discourse.

AND

The Stoic Definition of an Element is as follows—

Est δὶ τοιχείον, ἐξ οῦ πρώτε γίνεται τὰ γινόμενα, κỳ ἀι ὁ ἱσχετον ἀναλύεται. An Element is that, out of which, as their first Principle, things generated are made, and into which, as their last remains, they are resolved. Diog. Luert.

VII. 176. What Aristotle says upon Elements with respect to the Subject here treated, is worth attending to —Φωνίας τοιχεία, ἐξ ὧν σύγχειται ἡ Φωνή, κỳ εἰς ὰ διαιρίτει ἰσχατὰ ἐκείνα δὶ μακέτ εἰς ἄλλας Φωνάς ἐτίςας τῷ ἔιδιι αυτό. The Elements of articulate Voice are those things, out of which the Voice is compounded, and into which, we its last remains, it is divided: the Elements themselves being no farther divisible into other articulate Voices, ἀίρ fering in Species from them. Metaph. V. c. 3.

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AND thus it is that to Principles apparently so trivial, (f) as about twenty plain elementary Sounds, we owe that variety of articulate Voices, which have

Ch. II.

(f) The Egyptians paid divine Honours to the Inventor of Letters, and Regulator of Language, whom they called Theuth. By the Greeks he was worshipped under the Name of Hermes, and represented commonly by a Head alone without other Limbs, standing upon a quadrilateral Basis. The Head itself was that of a beautiful Youth, having on it a Petasus, or Bonnet, adorned with two Wings.

There was a peculiar reference in this Figure to the 'EPMHE AOFIOE, THE HERMES OF LANGUAGE OR DISCOURSE. He possessed no other part of the human figure but the HEAD, because no other was deemed requisite to rational Communication. Words at the same time, the medium of this Communication, being (as Homer well describes them) Ewa silegista, Winged Words, were represented in their Velocity by the Wings of his Bonnet.

Let us suppose such a Hermes, having the Front of his Basis (the usual place for Inscriptions) adorned with some old Alphabet, and having a Veil flung across, by which that Alphabet is partly covered. Let A YOUTH be seen drawing off this Veil; and A NYMPH, near the Youth, transcribing what She there discovers.

Such

Cb. II.

been sufficient to explain the Sentiments of so innumerable a Multitude, as all the present and past Generations of Men.

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Such a Design would easily indicate its Meaning. The Youth we might imagine to be the Gentes of Man (Natura Deus humana, as Horace stiles him;) the Nymph to be Mnhmoeynh, or Memory; as much a to insinuate that "Man, for the Preservation of his "Deeds and Inventions, was necessarily obliged to have recourse to Letters; and that Memory, being conscious of her own Insufficiency, was glad to avail here self of so valuable an Acquisition."

MR. STUART, well known for his accurate and elegant Edition of the Antiquities of Athens, has adorned this Work with a Frontispiece agreeable to the above Ideas, and that in a taste truly Attic and Simple, which no one possesses more eminently than himself.

As to Hennes, his History, Genealogy, Mythology, Figure, &c. Vid. Platon. Phileb. T. II. p. 18. Edit., Serran. Diod. Sic. L. I. Horat. Od. X. L. 1. Hesiod. Theog. V. 937. cum Comment. Joan. Diaconi. Thucid. VI. 27. et Scholiast. in loc. Pighiam apad Gronoc. Thesaur. T. IX. p. 1164.

For the value and importance of Principles, and the difficulty in attaining them, see Aristot. de Sophist. Elench, c. 34.

The



IT appears from what has been said, that THE MATTER OF COMMON SUB-JECT OF LANGUAGE IS that Species of Sounds called Voices ARTICULATE.

What remains to be examined in the following Chapter, is Language under its characteristic and peculiar Form, that is to say, Language considered, not with respect to Sound, but to Meaning.

Y 4

CHAP.

The following Passage, takes from that able Mathematician Tacquet, will be found peculiarly pertinent to what has been said in this chapter concerning Elementary Sounds, p. 324, 325.

Mille milliones scriptorum mille annorum millionibus non scribent omnes 24 litterarum alphabeti permutationes, licet staguli quotidiè absolverent 40 paginas, quarum unaquæque contineret diversos ordines literarum 24. Tacques Arithmeticæ Theor. p. 381. Edit. Antverp. 1663.

CHAP. III.

Upon the Form, or peculiar Character of Language.

Ch. III.

WHEN to any articulate Voice there accedes by compact a Meaning or Signification, such Voice by such accession is then called A WORD; and many Words, possessing their Significations (as it were) under the same Compact, (a) unite in constituting A PARTICULAR LANGUAGE.

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(a) See before Note (c) p. 314, See also Vol. I. Treatise II. c. 1. Notes (a) and (c).

The following Quotation from Animonius is remarkable—Καθάπις &ν το μέν κατά τόποι κινείσθαι, φύσει, το δε ές χιῖσθαι, θίσει κὰ κατά συνθήκην, κὰ τὸ μὲν ξύλου, φύσει, ἡ δε θύςα, θέσει ὅτω κὰ τὸ μὲν φωνεῖν, φύσει, τὸ δε δε' διωμάτων ἡ ἡημάτων σημαίνειν, θέσει—κὰ ἴοικε τὴν μεν φωνητικὴν δύναμις ὅςγανοι δεσει τῶν ψυχικῶν ἐν ἡμῶν δυνάμεων γνωςικῶν, ἡ ὁςεκλικῶν, κατὰ φύσω ἔχιυ

IT appears from hence, that A WORD Ch. III. may be defined a Voice articulate, and significant by Compact—and that LANGUAGE may be defined a System of such Voices, so significant.

It is from notions like these concerning Language and Words, that one may

έχειν ο άνθρωπ Ο σαραπλησίως τοις άλόγοις ζώοις το δε δυόμασιν η βήμασιν, η τοϊς έκ τύτων συγκειμένοις λόγοις χεήσθαι **σε**ός την σημασίαν (θείτι Φύσει δσιν, άλλὰ θίσει) ἐξαίρετον ἔχειν σερὸς τὰ άλογα ζῷα, διότι κὶ μόν@ τῶν θνητῶν ἀυτοκινήτα ματέχει ψυχῆς, κ) τέχρικώς ένεργεϊν δυναμένης, ίνα κ) έν άυτφ τῷ φωνείν ή τεχρική μοτής διακείνηται δύναμις· δελύσι δε ταυτα οί είς κάλλ 👁 συντμ θέμενοι λόγοι μετά μέτζων, η άνευ μέτζων. In the same manner therefore, as local Motion is from Nature, but Dancing is something positive; and as Timber exists in Nature, but a Door is something positive; so is the power of producing a vocal Sound founded in Nature, but that of explaining ourselves by Nouns, or Verbs, something positive. And hence it is, that as to the simple power of producing vocal Sound (which is as it were the Organ or Instrument to the Soul's faculties of Knowledge or Volition) as to this vocal power I say, Man seems to possess it from Nature, in like manner as irrational animals: but as to the emrlnging

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will follow, that whoever has natural faculties to know the Original, will by help of the same faculties know also its Imitations. But it by no means follows, that he who knows any Being, should know for that reason its Greek or Latin Name.

THE Truth is, that every Medium through which we exhibit any thing to another's Contemplation, is either derived from Natural Attributes, and then it is an IMITATION; or else from Accidents quite arbitrary, and then it is a Symbol. (6)

Now.

⁽b) Διαφίρει δὶ τὸ ΟΜΟΙΩΜΑ τὰ ΣΥΜΒΟΛΟΥ, καθόσον τὸ μὶν ὁμοίωμα τὴν φύσιν ἀυτὴν τὰ πράγματος κατὰ τὸ δυνατὸν ἀπεικοιίζεσθαι βάλεται, κὰ ἀκ ἔςιν ἐφ' ἡμῖν ἀυτὸ μεταπλάσαι' τὸ γαρ ἐν τῆ εἰκόνι γεγραμμένα τὰ Σωκράτας ὁμοίωμα, ἐι μὴ κὰ τὸ Φαλακρόν, κὰ τὸ σιμὸν κὰ τὸ ἐξώφθαλμον ἔχει τὰ Σωκράτας, ἀκάτ' ἀν ἀυτὰ λίγοιτο είναι ὁμοίωμα τὸ δί γε σύμδολον, ἥτοι σημεῖον, (ἀμφότερα γὰρ ὁ ΦιλόσοφΦ ἀυτὸ ὁσομάζει) τὸ ἄλον ἐφ' ἡμῖν ἔχει, ἀτε κὰ ἐκ μόνης ὑφοράμενον τῆς ἡμετόρας ἐπικοίας οἶον, τὰ πότε δεῖ συμδάλλειν ἀλλήλοις τὰς πόλεμῶντας, δύναται σύμβολου

"Symbols preferred, although Symbols "are only known by Habit or Institu"tion, while Imitations are recognized by a kind of natural Intuition?"—
To this it may be answered, that if the Sentiments of the Mind, like the Features of the Face, were immediately visible to every beholder, the Art of Speech or Discourse would have been perfectly superfluous. But now, while our Minds lie inveloped and hid, and the Body (like a Veil) conceals every thing but itself, we are necessarily compelled, when we communicate our Thoughts,

the flat-nosed, and the Eyes projecting, cannot properly be called a Representation of him. But a SYMBOL or Sign (for the Philosopher Aristotle uses both names) is wholly in our own power, as depending singly for its existence on our imagination. Thus for example, as to the time when two armies should engage, the Symbol or Sign may be the sounding of a Trumpet, the throwing of a Torch, (according to what Euripides says,

But when the flaming Torch was har't, the sign Of purple fight, as when the Trumpet sounds, &c.) or else one may suppossible elevating of a Spear, the darting of a Weapon, and a thousand ways besides. Ammonia Lib. de Interp. p. 17. b.

be necessarily thro' Figure and Colour also. Again, as far as they are characterized by Sounds, it would for the same reason be thro' the Medium of Sounds. The like may be said of all the other Senses, the Imitation still shifting along with the Objects imitated. We see then how complicated such Imitation would prove.

Ir we set Language therefore, as a Symbol, in opposition to such Imitation; if we reflect on the Simplicity of the one, and the Multiplicity of the other; if we consider the Ease and Speed, with which Words are formed (an Ease which knows no trouble or fatigue; and a *Speed, which equals the Progress of our very Thoughts) if we oppose to this the difficulty and length of Imitations; if we remember that some Objects are capable of no Imitations at all, but that all Objects universally may be typified by Symbols; we may plainly perceive

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[◆] Ета Бидовта—See before, р. 325.

posed, "Why, in the common inter-"course of men with men, Imitations "have been rejected, and Symbols pre-"ferred."

> HENCE too we may perceive a Reason, why there never was a Language, nor indeed can possibly be framed one, to espress the Properties and real Essences of things, as a Mirrour exhibits their Figures and their Colours. For if Language of itself imply nothing more, than certain Species of Sounds with certain Motions concomitant; if to some Beings Sound and Motion are no Attributes at all; if to many others, where Attributes, they are no way essential (such as the Murmurs and Wavings of a Tree during a storm) if this be true—it is impossible the Nature of such Beings should be expressed, or the least essential Property be any way imitated, while between the Medium and themselves there is nothing CONNATURAL(). ALE

⁽e) See Vol.-I. Treatise II. c. 3, p. 70.

It is true indeed, when Primitives Ch. III. were once established, it was easy to follow the Connection and Subordination of Nature, in the just deduction of Derivatives and Compounds. the Sounds, Water, and, Fire, being once annexed to those two Elements. it was certainly more natural to call Beings participating of the first, Watry, of the last, Fiery, than to commute the Terms, and call them by the reverse.— But why, and from what natural Connections the Primitives themselves might not be commuted, it will be found, I believe, difficult to assign a Reason, as well in the instances before us, as in most others. We may here also see the Reason, why ALL LANGUAGE IS FOUNDED IN COMPACT, and not in Nature; for so are all Symbols of which Words are a certain Species.

THE Question remains if words are Symbols, then SYMBOLS OF WHAT? -- If it be answered, of THINGS, the Question returns, or WHAT THINGS?—If it be answered, of the several Individuals of Sense, the various particular Beings, which exist around us—to this, it is replied, may be raised certain Doubts. In the first place every Word will be in fact a proper Name. Now if all Words are proper Names, how came Lexicographers, whose express business is to explain Words, either wholly to omit proper Names, or at least to explain them, not from their own Art, but from History?

AGAIN, if all Words are proper Names, then in strictness no Word can belong to more than one Individual. But if so, then, as Individuals are infinite, to make a perfect Language, Words must be infinite also. But if infinite, then incomprehensible, and never to be attained by the wisest Men; whose labours in Language upon this Hypothesis would be as idle as that study of infinite written Symbols,

Symbols, which Missionaries (if they Ch. III. may be credited) attribute to the Chinese.

AGAIN, if all Words are proper Names, or (which is the same) the Symbols of Individuals; it will follow, as Individuals are not only infinite, but ever passing, that the Language of those, who lived ages ago, will be as unknown now, as the very Voices of the Speakers. Nay the Language of every Province, of every Town, of every Cottage, must be every where different, and every where changing, since such is the Nature of Individuals, which it follows.

AGAIN, if all Words are proper Names, the Symbols of Individuals, it will follow that in Language there can be no general Proposition, because upon the Hypothesis all Terms are particular; nor any Affirmative Proposition, because no one Individual in nature is another. It remains, there can be no Propositions,

Ch. III. but Particular Negatives. But if so. then is Language incapable of communicating General Affirmative Truths-If so, then of communicating Demonstration-If so, then of communicating Sciences, which are so many Systems of Demonstrations-If so, then of communicating Arts which are the Theorems of Science applied practically-If so. we shall be little better for it either in Speculation or in Practice.(e) And so much for this Hypothesis; let us now try another.

> IF WORDS are not the Symbols of external Particulars, it follows of course, they must be THE SYMBOLS OF OUR IDEAS: For this is evident, if they are not

⁽e) The whole of Euclid (whose Elements may be called the basis of Mathematical Science) is founded upon general Terms and general Propositions, most of which are affirmative. So true are those Verses, however barbarous as to their stile,

Syllogizari non est ex Particulari. Neve Negativis, rectè concludere si vis.

not Symbols of things without, they can Ch. III. only be Symbols of something within.

HERE then the Question recurs, if SYMBOLS OF IDEAS, then of WHAT IDEAS?—OF SENSIBLE IDEAS.—Be it so, and what follows?—Every thing in fact, which has followed already from the supposition of their being the Symbols of external Particulars; and that from this plain and obvious reason, because the several Ideas, which Particulars imprint, must needs be as infinite and mutable, as they are themselves.

If then Words are neither the Symbols of external Particulars, nor yet of particular Ideas, they can be Symbols of nothing else, except of GENERAL IDEAS, because nothing else, except these, remains.—And what do we mean by GENERAL IDEAS?—We mean such as are common to many Individuals; not only to Individuals which Z3 exist

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Ch. III.

exist now, but which existed in ages past, and will exist in ages future; such for example, as the Ideas belonging to the Words, Man, Lion, Cedar.—Admit it, and what follows?—It follows, that if Words are the Symbols of such general Ideas, Lexicographers may find employ, though they meddle not with proper Names.

Ir follows that one Word may be, not homonymously, but truly and essentially common to many Particulars, past present and future; so that however these Particulars may be infinite, and ever fleeting, yet Language notwithstanding may be definite and steady. But if so, then attainable even by ordinary Capacities, without danger of incurring the Chinese Absurdity.*

AGAIN, it follows that the Language of those, who lived ages ago, as far as

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^{*} See p. 338, 339.

it stands for the same general Ideas, may be as intelligible now, as it was then.—
The like may be said of the same Language being accommodated to distant Regions, and even to distant Nations, amidst all the variety of ever new and ever changing Objects.

AGAIN, it follows that Language may be expressive of general Truths; and if so, then of Demonstration, and Sciences, and Arts; and if so, become subservient to purposes of every kind. 60

Now if it be true "that none of "these things could be asserted of Lan-"guage, were not Words the Symbols "of general Ideas—and it be further "true, that these things may be all "undeniably asserted of Language"—it will follow (and that necessarily) that Words are the Symbols of general Ideas.

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Dee before Note (e).

And yet perhaps even here may be an Objection. It may be urged, if Words are the Symbols of general Ideas, Language may answer well enough the purpose of Philosophers, who reason about general and abstract Subjects-but what becomes of the business of ordinary Life? Life we know is merged in a multitude of Particulars, where an Explanation by Language is as requisite, as in the highest Theorems. The Vulgar indeed want it to no other End. How then can this End in any respect be answered, if Language be expressive of nothing farther than general Ideas?

To this it may be answered, that Arts surely respect the business of ordinary Life; yet so far are general Terms from being an Obstacle here, that without them no Art can be rationally explained. How for instance should the measuring Artist ascertain to the Reapers the price of their labours, had not he first through general

general Terms learnt those general The- Ch. II orems, that respect the doctrine and practice of Mensuration?

But suppose this not to satisfy a persevering Objector-suppose him to insist, that, admitting this to be true, there were still a multitude of occasions for minute particularizing, of which it was not possible for mere Generals to be susceptible—suppose, I say, such an Objection, what should we answer? That the Objection was just; that it was necessary to the Perfection and Completion of LANGUAGE, that it should be expressive of PARTICULARS, as well as of GENERALS. We must however add, that its general Terms are by far its most excellent and essential Part, since from these it derives "that comprehen-" sive Universality, that just proportion " of Precision and Permanence, without " which it could not possibly be either "learnt, or understood, or applied "to the purposes of Reasoning and "Science:

__that particular Terms have nity and End, and that theretoo has been taken for a supthese,

Dan Method of expressing Particuars, is that of PROPER NAMES. This is the least artificial, because proper Names being in every district arbitrarily applied, may be unknown to those, who know the Language perfectly well, and can hardly therefore with propriety be considered as parts of it. The other and more artificial Method is that of Deri-NITIVES OF ARTICLES,(g) whether we assume the pronominal, or those more strictly so called. And here we cannot enough admire the exquisite Art of Language, which, without wandering into infinitude, contrives how to denote things infinite; that is to say in other words, which, by the small Tribe of Definitives properly applied to general

Terms,

⁽g) See before, p. 72, &c. 233, &c.

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in number finite, to the accurate expression of infinite Particulars.

To explain what has been said by a single example. Let the general Term be Man. I have occasion to apply this Term to the denoting of some Particular. Let it be required to express this Particular as unknown; I say, A Man-known; I say, THE Man-indefinite; ANY Man-definite; A CERTAIN Man-present and near; THIS Manpresent and distant: THAT Man-like . to some other; such a Man—an indefinite Multitude: MANY Men-a definite Multitude; A THOUSAND Men-the ones of a Multitude, taken throughout; EVERY . Man-the same ones, taken with distinctions: EACH Man-taken in order: FIRST Man, SECOND Man, &c.—the whole Multitude of Particulars taken collectively; ALL Men-the Negation of this Multitude; no Man. But of this we have spoken already, when we inquired concerning Definitives.

Тне

THE Sum of all is, that Words are
THE SYMBOLS OF IDEAS BOTH GENERAL AND PARTICULAR; YET OF THE
GENERAL, PRIMARILY, ESSENTIALLY, AND IMMEDIATELY; OF THE
PARTICULAR, ONLY SECONDARILY,

ACCIDENTALLY, AND MEDIATELY.

Should it be asked, "why has Lan"guage this double Capacity?"—May
we not ask, by way of return, Is it not
a kind of reciprocal Commerce, or Intercourse of our Ideas? Should it not
therefore be framed, so as to express
the whole of our Perception? Now can
we call that Perception intire and whole,
which implies either INTELLECTION
without Sensation, or SENSATION without Intellection? If not, how should
Language explain the whole of our Perception, had it not Words to express
the Objects, proper to each of the two
Faculties?

To conclude—As in the preceding Chapter we considered Language with a view

a view to its Matter, so here we have considered it with a view to its Form. Its Matter is recognized, when it is considered as a Voice; its Form, as it is significant of our several Ideas; so that upon the whole it may be defined—A. System of articulate Voices, the Symbols of our Ideas, but of those principally, which are general or universal.

CHAP.

CHAP. IV.

White of Process and Market

Concerning general or universal Ideas.

MUCH having been said in the preceding Chapter about GENERAL OR UNIVERSAL IDEAS, it may not perhaps be amiss to inquire, by what process we come to perceive them, and what kind of Beings they are; since the generality of men think so meanly of their existence, that they are commonly considered, as little better than Shadows. These Sentiments are not unusual even with the Philosopher now a days, and that from causes much the same with those, which influence the Vulgar.

THE VULGAR merged in Sense from their earliest Infancy, and never once dreaming any thing to be worthy of pursuit, but what either pampers their Appetite, or fills their Purse, imagine nothing

nothing to be real, but what may be. Ch. IV. tasted, or touched. THE PHILOSOPHER, as to these matters being of much the same Opinion, in Philosophy looks no higher, than to experimental Amusements, deeming nothing Demonstration, if it be not made ocular. Thus instead of ascending from Sense to Intellect (the natural progress of all true Learning) he hurries on the contrary into the midst of Sense, where he wanders at random without any end, and is lost in a Labyrinth of infinite Particulars.-Hence then the reason why the sublimer parts of Science, the Studies of MIND, INTELLECTION, and INTELLI-GENT PRINCIPLES, are in a manner neglected; and, as if the Criterion of. all Truth were an Alembic or an Airpump, what cannot be proved by Experiment, is deemed no better than mere Hypothesis.

AND yet it is somewhat remarkable, amid the prevalence of such Notions, 1 that

MAN'S FIRST PERCEPTIONS are those of the SENSES, in as much as they commence from his earliest Infancy. These Perceptions, if not infinite, are at least indefinite, and more fleeting and transient, than the very Objects, which they exhibit, because they not only

Science, and is thence enabled to tell us, not only, what is to be done, but why it is to be done; for air is a composite of Experience and Science, Experience providing it Materials, and Science giving them A Form.

In the mean time, while Experiment is thus necessary to all practical Wisdom, with respect to pure and speculative Science, as we have hinted already, it has not the least to do. For who ever heard of Logic, or Geometry, or Arithmetic being proved experimentally? It is indeed by the application of these that Experiments are rendered useful; that they are assumed into Philosophy, and in some degree made a part of it, being otherwise nothing better than puerile amusements. But that these Sciences themselves should depend upon the Subjects, on which they work, is, as if the Marble were to fashion the Chizzle, and not the Chizzle the Marble.

may be seen from hence. We have an Imagination of things, that are gone and extinct; but no such things can be made objects of Sensation. We have an easy command over the Objects of our Imagination, and can call them forth in almost what manner we please; but our Sensations are necessary, when their Objects are present, nor can we controul them, but by removing either the Objects, or ourselves(c).

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(c) Besides the distinguishing of SENSATION from IMA-GINATION, there are two other Faculties of the Soul, which from their nearer alliance ought carefully to be distinguished from it, and these are MNHMH, and ANAM-NHEIE, MEMORY, and RECOLLECTION.

When we view some relict of sensation reposed within us, without thinking of its rise, or referring it to any sensible Object, this is PHANSY OF IMAGINATION.

When we view some such relict, and refer it withat to that sensible Object, which in time past was its cause and original, this is MENORY.

Lastly

pect to Sense and Imagination. Sense is its receptive Power; IMAGINATION, its retentive. Had it Sense without Imagination, it would not be as Wax, but as Water, where tho all Impressions may be instantly made, yet as soon as made they are as instantly lost.

Thus then, from a view of the two Powers taken together, we may call Sense (if we please) a kind of transient Imagination; and IMAGINATION on the contrary a kind of permanent Sense^(d).

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What we have said may suffice for our present purpose. He that would learn more, may consult Aristot. de Animá, L. III. c. 3, 4. and his Treatise de Mem. et Reminisc.

⁽d) Τί τοίνυν ες εν ή φανιασία δόε αν γνωρίσαιμεν δεί νοιν εν έμεν άπό των ενεργειών των περί τα αισθητά, διου τύπου (lege τύπου) τινα κ) αναζωγράφημα εν τῷ ωρωτφ αισθητηρίφ, εγκατάλειμμά τι τῆς ὑπὸ τε ἀισθηίε γινομένης κινήσεως, ο κ) μηκέτι τε ἀισθητε ωα-ρόντος, ὑωομένης τὶ κ) σώζεται, ο ο ωσπερ ενώς τις ἀυτε, ο κ) τῆς κινήμης ἡμεν σωζόμενοι αίλιου γίνεται τὸ τοιῦτον εγκανάλειμμα, κ)

AFTER this manner, in the admira- Ch. IV. ble Oeconomy of the Whole, are Natures aubordinate made subservient to the higher. Were there no Things external, the Senses could not operate; were there no Sensations, the Imagination could not operate; and were there no Imagination, there could be neither Reasoning nor Intellection, such at least as they are found in Man, where they have their Intensions and Remissions in alternate succession, and are at first nothing better, than a mere CAPACITY or POWER. Whether every Intellect begins thus, may be perhaps a question; especially if there be any one of a nature more divine, to which "Intension and Remis "sion and mere Capacity are "known." But not to digress.

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⁽c) See p. 162. The Life, Energy, or Manner of Man's Existence is not a little different from that of the DEITY. THE LIFE OF MAN has its Essence in MOTION.

HERMES.

It is then on these permanent Phantasms that THE HUMAN MIND first works,

This is not only true with respect to that lower and subordinate Life, which he shares in common with Vegetables, and which can no longer subsist than while the Fluids circulate, but it is likewise true in that Life, which is peculiar to him as Man. Objects from without first move our faculties, and thence we move of ourselves either to Practice or Contemplation. But the Life or Existence of God (as far as we can conjecture upon so transcendent a Subject) is not only complete throughout Eternity, but complete in every Instant, and is for that reason immutable and superior to all Motion.

It is to this distinction that Aristotle alludes, when he tell us—Οὐ γὰς μόνον κινήσεως ἐς ιν ἐνίς για, ἀλλὰ κὰ ἀκινησίας κὰ ἡδονή μᾶλλον ἐν ἡς εμία ἐς ἐν, ἡ ἐν κινήσει μεταθολή δὲ πάντων γλυκὺ, κατὰ τὸν ποιητήν, διὰ πονηςίαν τινά ὅσπες γὰς ἄνθευπος ἐυμετάθολος ὁ πονηςὸς, κὰ ἡ φύσις ἡ δεομένη μεταθολής ἐγὰς ἀπλή, οὐδ' ἐπιεικής. For there is not only an Energy of Motion, but of Immobility; and Pleasure or Felicity exists rather in Rest than in Motion; Change of all things being sweet (according to the Poet) from a principle of Pravity in those who believe so. For in the same man-

BOOK THE THIRD.

works, and by an Energy as spontane-Ch. IV. ous and familiar to its Nature, as the 'seeing of Colour is familiar to the Eye,

it

ner as the bad man is one fickle and changeable, so is that Nature bad that requireth Variety, in as much as such Nature is neither simple nor even. Eth. Nicom. VII. 14. & Ethic. Eudem. VI. sub. fin.

It is to this unalterable Nature of the Deity that ... Boethius refers, when he says in those elegant verses,

-Tempus ab Ævo Îre jubes STABILISQUE MANENS das cuncta moveri.

From this single principle of Immobility, may be derived some of the noblest of the Divine Attributes; such as that of Impassive, Incorruptible, Incorporeal, &c. Vide Aristot. Physic. VIII. Metaphys. XIV. c. 6, 7, 9, 10. Edit. Du Val. See also Vol. I. of these Treatises, p. 262 to 266-also p. 295, where the Verses of Boethius are quoted at length.

It must be remembered however, that though we are not Gods, yet as rational Beings we have within us some thing Divine, and that the more we can become superior to our mutable, variable, and irrational part, and place our welfare in that Good, which is immutable, per-

a kind of superior Objects; a new Race Ch. IV. of Perceptions, more comprehensive

than

What then perceives this Consultation or Union? -Can it be any of the Senses?-No one of these, we know, can pass the limits of its own province. Were the Smell to perceive the union of the Odour and the Figure, it would not only be Smell, but it would be Sight also. It is the same in other instances. must necessarily therefore recur to some HIGHER COL-LECTIVE Power, to give us a prospect of Nature, even in these her subordinate Wholen much more in that comprehensive Whole, whose Sympathy is universal, and of which these smaller Wholes are all no more than Parts.

But no where is this collecting, and (if I may be allowed the expression) this unifying Power more conspicuous, than in the subjects of PURE TRUTH. virtue of this power the Mind views One general Idea, in many Individuals; One Proposition in many general Ideas; One Syllogism in many Propositions; till at length, by properly repeating and connecting Syllogism with Syllogism, it ascend into those bright and steady regions of Science.

Quas neque concutiunt venti, neque nubila nimbie Adspergunt, &c. Lucr.

Even

Ch. IV. than those of Sense; a Race of Perceptions, each one of which may be found intire

Even negative Truths and negative Conclusions cannot subsist, but by bringing Terms and Propositions together, so necessary is this UNITING Power to every Species of Knowledge. See p. 3. 250.

He that would better comprehend the distinction between sensitive Perception, and intellective, may observe that, when a Truth is spoken, it is heard by our Ears, and understood by our Minds. - That these two Acts are different, is plain, from the example of such, as hear the sounds, without knowing the language. But to shew their difference still stronger, let us suppose them to concur in the same Man, who shall both hear and understand the Truth proposed. the Truth be for example, The Angles of a Triangle are equal to two right Angles. That this is ONE Truth. and not two or many Truths, I believe none will deny. Let me ask then, in what manner does this Truth become perceptible (if at all) to SENSATION ?- The Answer is obvious; it is by successive portions of little and little at a Time. When the first Word is present, all the subsequent are absent; when the last Word is present, all the previous are absent; when any of the middle Words are present, then are there some absent, as well of one sort as the other. No more exists at intire and whole in the separate individu- Ch. IV. als of an infinite and fleeting Multitude, without

once than a single Syllable, and the Remainder as much is not, (to Sensation at least) as tho' it never had been, or never was to be. And so much for the perception of Sense, than which we see nothing can be more dissipated, fleeting, and detached.-And is that of the Mind similar? - Admit it, and what follows? -- it follows, that one Mind would no more recognize one Truth, by recognizing its Terms successively and apart. than many distant Minds would recognize it, were it distributed among them, a different part to each. The case is, every TRUTH is ONE, tho' its TERMS are MANY. It is in no respect true, by parts at a time, but it is true of necessity at once and in an instant.-What Powers therefore recognize this Oneness or Unity?—Where even does it reside, or what makes it? - Shall we answer with the Stagirite, To 3) EN HOIOTN 7570 : NOTE Ixacor — If this be allowed, it should seem, where SEN-SATION and INTELLECTION appear to concur, that Sensation was of MANY, Intellection was of One; that Sensation was temporary, divisible, and successive; Intellection, instantaneous, indivisible, and at once.

If we consider the Radii of a Circle, we shall find at the Circumference that they are many; at the Center that they are one. Let us then suppose Sense and MIND to view the same Radii, only let Sense view them Cb. IV.

without departing from the unity and permanence of its own nature.

AND

at the Circumference; Mind at the Center; and hence we may conceive, how these Powers differ, even where they jointly appear to operate in perception of the same object.

There is ANOTHER ACT OF THE MIND, the very reverse of that here mentioned; an Act, by which it perceives not one in many, but MAMY IN ONE. This is that mental Separation, of which we have given some account in the first Chapter of this Book; that Resolution or Analysis which enables us to investigate the Causes, and Principles, and Elements of things. It is by Virtue of this, that we are enabled to abstract any particular Attribute, and make it by itself the Subject of philosophical Contemplation. Were it not for this, it would be difficult for particular Sciences to exist; because otherwise they would be as much blended, as the several Attributes of sensible Substances. How, for example, could there be such a Science as Optics, were we necessitated to contemplate Colour concreted with Figure, two A ttributes which the Eye can never view, but associated? I mention not a multitude of other sensible qualities, some of which still present themselves, whenever we look on any coloured Body.

Those

BOOK THE THIRD.

AND thus we see the Process by which we arrive at GENERAL IDEAS; for the

Ch. IV.

Those two noble Sciences, ARITHMETIC and GEOME-TRY, would have no Basis to stand on, were it not for this separative Power. They are both conversant about QUANTITY; Geometry about CONTINUOUS Quantity, Arithmetic about DISCRETE. EXTENSION is essential to continuous Quantity, MONADS, or UNITS, to Discrete. By separating from the infinite Individuals, with which we are surrounded, those infinite Accidents, by which they are all diversified, we leave nothing but those SIMPLE and PERFECTLY SIMILAR UNITS, which being combined make NUMBER, and are the Subject of ARITHMETIC .-Again, by separating from Body every possible subordinate Accident, and leaving it nothing but its triple Extension of Length, Breadth, and Thickness, (of which were it to be deprived, it would be Body no longer) we arrive at that pure and unmixed MAGNITUDE, the contemplation of whose properties makes the Science of Geometry.

By the same analytical or separate Power, we investigate Definitions of all kinds, each one of which is a developed Word, as the same Word is an inveloped Definition.

To conclude—In Composition and Division con-

dividuals. however of themselves unknowable, become objects of Knowledge,

ביינוי קעבר דאו ביינוקובר אל מודמב ביאור בביי ביין עופשר ביינוע און ביינוי און ביינוי און ביינוי און ביינוי און ή γας देवार्र्यमा कार्टा पर καθόλε κે άμετά εθωτα καταγίνεται. Science (EMIZTHMH) has its name from bringing us (EMI - ETAZIN) TO SOME STOP and BOUNDARY of things, taking us away from the unbounded nature and mulability of Particulars; for it is conversant about Subjects, that are general, and invariable. Niceph. Blem. Epit. Logica p. 21.

This Etymology given by Blemmides, and long before him adopted by the Peripatetics, came originally · from Plato, as may be seen in the following account of it from his Cratylus. In this Dialogue Socrates, having first (according to the Heraclitean Philosophy, which Cratylus favoured) etymologized a multitude of Words with a view to that Flow and unceasing Mutation, supposed by Heraclitus to run thro' all things, at length changes his System, and begins to etymologize from another, which supposed something in nature to be permanent and fixed. On this principle he thus proceeds Σκοπώμεν δή, εξ άυτων άναλαβόντες σερτον μέν τέτο τὸ δρομα την ΕΠΙΣΤΗΜΗΝ, ώς άμφιβόλον ές, κζ μάλλον έοικε σημαϊνόν τι ότι ΙΣΤΗΣΙΝ ήμων ΕΠΙ τοῖς ωράγμασι τὴν ψυχὴν, ἡ ότι συμπιειφίειται. Let us consider, then (says he) some of the very Words already examined; and in the first place, Вь . the

lar be said to be known, when by assert- Ch. IV. ing it to be a Man, or an Animal, or the B b 2 like.

The English Word, UNDERSTANDING, means not so properly Knowledge, as that Faculty of the Soul, where Knowledge resides. Why may we not then imagine. that the framers of this Word intended to represent it as a kind of firm Basis, on which the fair Structure of Sciences was to rest, and which was supposed to STAND UNDER them, as their immoveable Support.

Whatever may be said of these Etymologics, whether they are true or false, they at least prove their Authors to have considered Science and Understanding, not as fleeting powers of Perception, like Sense, but rather as steady, permanent, and durable Comprehensions.— But if so, we must somewhere or other find for them certain steady, permanent, and durable OBJECTS: since if Perception of any kind be different from the THING PERCEIVED, (whether it perceive straight as crooked, or crooked as straight; the moving as fixed, or the fixed as moving) such perception must of ne-CESSITY BE ERRONEOUS AND FALSE. The following passage from a Greek Platonic (whom we shall quote again hereafter) seems on the present occasion not without its Weight-Ei isi moors axerbesiea ras dirbireus, Im ar xi maτὰ ἀληθες έρα τῶν ἀισθητῶν. If there be A KNOWLEDGE more accurate

HERMES.

ch IV. like, we refer it to some such comprehensive, or general Idea.

Now it is of these COMPREHENSIVE and PERMANENT IDEAS, THE GENUINE PERCEPTIONS OF PURE MIND, that Words of all Languages, however different, are the Symbols. And hence it is, that as the Perceptions include, so do these their Symbols express,

accurate than Sensation there must be certain objects of such knowledge more true than objects of Sense.

The following then are Questions worth considering, —What these Objects are?—Where they reside?—And how they are to be discovered?—Not by experimental Philosophy it is plain; for that meddles with nothing, but what is tangible, corporeal, and mutable—nor even by the more refined and rational speculation of Mathematics; for this, at its very commencement, takes such Objects for granted. We can only add, that if they reside in our own Minds, (and who, that has never looked there, can affirm they do not?) then will the advice of the Satirist be no ways improper,

---- NEC TE QUÆSIVERIS EXTRA.

Pers.



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press, not this or that set of Particulars only, but all indifferently, as they happen to occur. Were therefore the Inhabitants of Salisbury to be transferred to York, tho' new particular objects would appear on every side, they would still no more want a new Language to explain themselves, than they would want new Minds to comprehend what they beheld. All indeed, that they would want, would be the local proper Names; which Names, as we have said already*, are hardly a part of Language, but must equally be learnt both by learned and unlearned, as often as they

It is upon the same principles we may perceive the reason, why the dead Languages (as we call them) are now intelligible; and why the Language of modern England is able to describe Bb3 antient

change the place of their abode.

^{*} Sup. p. 345, 346.

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ch. IV. antient Rome; and that of antient Rome to describe modern England(h). But of these matters we have spoken before.

§ 2. And now having viewed the Process, by which we acquire general Ideas, let us begin anew from other Principles, and try to discover (if we can prove so fortunate) whence it is that these Ideas originally come. If we can succeed here, we may discern perhaps, what kind of Beings they are, for this at present appears somewhat obscure.

LET



⁽h) As far as Human Nature, and the primary General both of Substance and Accident are the same in all places, and have been so thro' all ages: so far all Languages share one common IDENTITY. As far as peculiar species of Substance occur in different regions; and much more, as far as the positive Institutions of religious and civil Polities are every where different; so far each Language has its peculiar Diversity. To the Causes of Diversity here mentioned, may be added the distinguishing Character and Genius of every Nation, concerning which we shall speak hereafter.

LET us suppose any man to look for Ch. IV. the first time upon some Work of Art, as for example upon a Clock; and having sufficiently viewed it, at length to depart. Would he not retain, when absent, an Idea of what he had seen?—
And what is it, to retain such Idea?—
It is to have A FORM INTERNAL correspondent to THE EXTERNAL; only with this difference, that the Internal Form is devoid of the Matter; the External is united with it, being seen in the metal, the wood, and the like.

Now if we suppose this Spectator to view many such Machines, and not simply to view, but to consider every part of them, so as to comprehend how these parts all operate to one End, he might be then said to possess a kind of intelligible Form, by which he would not only understand, and know the Clocks, which he had seen already, but every Work also of like Sort, which he might see hereafter.—Should it be Bb4 asked,

more become subsequent, than Cause can Ch. IV. to Effect.

Thus then, with respect to Works of ART, we may perceive, if we attend, A TRIPLE ORDER OF FORMS; one Order, intelligible and previous to these Works; a second Order, sensible and concomitant; and a third again, intelligible and subsequent. After the first of these Orders the Maker may be said to work: thro' the second, the Works themselves exist, and are what they are; and in the third they become recognized, as mere Objects of Contemplation. To make these Forms by different Names more easy to be understood; the first may be called the Maker's Form: the second, that of THE SUBJECT; and the third, that of the Contemplator.

LET us pass from hence to Works of NATURE. Let us imagine ourselves viewing some diversified Prospect; "a "Plain, for example, spacious and fer"tile;

THUS therefore in NATURE, as well as in ART, THERE ARE INTELLIGIBLE FORMS, WHICH TO THE SENSIBLE ARE SUBSEQUENT. Hence then we see the meaning of that noted School Axiom, Nil est in Intellectu quod non prius fuit in Sensu; an Axiom, which we must own to be so far allowable, as it respects the Ideas of a mere Contemplator.

BUT to proceed somewhat farther—Are natural Productions made BY CHANCE, or BY DESIGN?—Let us admit by Design, not to lengthen our inquiry. They are certainly* more exquisite than any Works of ART, and yet these we cannot bring ourselves to suppose made by Chance.—Admit it, and what follows?—We must of necessity admit a MIND also, because DESIGN implies MIND, wherever it is to be found. Allowing therefore this, what do we mean

^{*} Arist. de Part. Animal. L. I. c. 1.

but their Copies or Pictures. That they are mental is plain, as they are of the Essence of MIND, and consequently no Objects to any of the Senses, nor therefore circumscribed either by Time or Place.

HERE then, on this System, we have plenty of Forms intelligible, which are truly previous to all Forms sensible. Here too we see that Nature is not defective in her triple Order, having (like Art) her Forms previous, her Concomitant, and her Subsequent(i).

THAT

⁽i) Simplicius, in his commentary upon the Predicaments, calls the first Order of these intelligible Forms, τὰ ωρὸ τῆς μιθίξιως, those previous to Participation, and at other times, ἡ ἰξηρημίνη χοινότης, the transcendent Universality or Sameness; the second Order he calls τὰ ἰρμιθίξιι, those which exist in Participation, that is, those merged in Matter: and at other times, he calls them.

Ch. IV. THAT the previous may be justly so called is plain, because they are essentially

in natatistaquism noisothe, the subordinate Universality or Sameness; lastly, of the third Order he says, that they have no independent existence of their own, but thatnuels apenores aura er rais nuerteais errolais, xab' faura inschause, we ourselves abstracting them in our own Imaginations, have given them by such abstraction an existence as of themselves. Simp. in Prædic. p. 17. In another place he says, in a language somewhat mysterious, yet still conformable to the same doctrine-Mintors in Terr Τον ληπίδον το κοινόν, το μέν έξηρημένον των καθ' έκαςα, κὶ αιτισε της έν αυτοίς κοιγότητος, κατά την μίαν έαυτε Φύσιν, ώσπες ή της διαφορότητος κατά την ωολυειδή ωρόληψιν-δεύτερον δέ έστι το κοινον, το από κοινε αιτίε τοῖς διαφόροις ξιδεσιν ενδιδόμενον, κ ενυπάρχον άυτοις-τρίτον δε, το εν ταις ήμετέραις διανοίαις εξ άφαιείσεως ύφιστάμενον, υστεςογενές ov-Perhaps therefore we must admit a TRIPLE ORDER OF WHAT IS UNIVERSAL AND THE SAME; that of the first Order, transcendent and superior to Particulars, which thro' its uniform nature is the cause of that Sameness existing in them, as thro' its multiform pre-conception it is the cause of their Diversity -that of the second Order, what is infused from the first universal Cause into the various Species of Beings, and which has its existence in those several Species-that of the third Order, what subsists by abstraction in our own Understandings, being of subsequent origin to the other two. Ibid. p. 21.

visible World exhibits nothing more

Ch. IV.

To Simplicius we shall add the two following Quotations from Ammonius and Nicephorus Blemmides, which we have ventured to transcribe, without regard to their uncommon length, as they so fully establish the Doctrine here advanced, and the works of these authors are not easy to be procured.

'Ennosίσθω τοίνυν δακίύλιός τις εκίύπωμα έχων, εἰ τύχοι, 'A yilhis; nì ungia wolla magazzinera. 6 31 Bazhili . o peaγιζίτω του κηρου ωάνθας υς ερου δέ τις είσελθων κ) વિસ્તσάμεν@ જલે માર્ગલ, કેનાડ્રમેનલ કેના અલંગીલ કેર્દ્ધ કંગ્કેડ રોક્યા કેરીયમાં મુલ્લી 👁, કેર્ટ્સમ कबर्' देण्यम् पर्वे देशीण्यक्षात्र यम् ठेश्वार्वाद्य. "Η τοίνον σφεαγίς में देश पर्क् **ξ**ακτυλίω λέγεται ΠΡΟ ΤΩΝ ΠΟΛΛΩΝ είναι: ή δὲ ἐν τοῖς κηρίοις, ΕΝ ΤΟΙΣ ΠΟΛΛΟΙΣ ή δὶ Ιν τῆ διανοία τῶ ἀπομαξαμίνε, ΕΠΙ TOIZ HOAAOIZ, z) usegoveris. Tero es inocioba z, imi rac भूशका भे, देखिका 6 भूबेट Δημικεγός, कार्रका कर्वश्य, दूरा कर्वद देवएम्ब τὰ ωάντων ωαραδείγματα οίον, ωριών άνθρωπον, έχει τὸ είδος कας' έαυτῶ τὰ ἀνθεώπα, ωρὸς ὁ ἀφορῶν, ωάντας ωοιεί. 'Ει δέ τις દેવς αίη λέγων, ώς έκ દισί τρας α τῷ Δημικεγῷ τὰ ἔιδη, ἀκυέτω ταυτα, ως ο Δημικργός δημικργεί, η ειδώς τα ύπ' αυτέ δημι-שργάμενα, ที่ ช่น ริเอิมร. 'Αλλ' ริเ μεν μη ริเอิมร, ช่น ฉึง อีกนเยองท์σει. Τές γάς, μίλλων જાગાંતτιν τὶ, άγιοῖι ὁ μίλλει જાગદાν; હ γάς, ώς ή Ciois.

these it attains even a Semblance of Ch. IV. Immortality,

rius genitum dicetur. Idem in generibus et formis intelligendum censeo; etenim ille optimus procreator mundi Deus, omnium rerum formas, atque exempla habet apud se: ut si hominem efficere velit, in hominis formam, quain habet, intueatur, et ad illius exemplum cateros faciat omnes. At si quis restiterit, dicatque rerum formas apud Creatorem non esse: quaso ut diligenter attendat: Opifex. quæ facit, vel cognoscit, vel ignorat : sed is, qui nesciet, nunquam quicquam faciet: quis enim id facere aggreditur, quod facere ignorat? Neque enim facultate quadam rationis experte aliquid aget, prout agit natura (ex quo conficitur, ut natura etiam agat, ctsi quæ faciat non advertat:) Si vero ratione quadum aliquid facit, quodcunque ab eo factum est omnino cognovit. Si igitur Deus non pejore ratione, quam homo, facit quid, que fecit cognovit: si cognovit quæ fecit, in ipso rerum formas esse perspicuum est. Formæ autem in opifice sunt perinde ac in annulo sigillum, hacque forma ANTE MULTA, et avulsa a materia dicitur. Atqui hominis species in unoquoque homine est, quemadmodum etiam sigilla in ceris; et IN MULTIS, nec avulsa a materid dicitur. At cum singulos homines animo conspicimus, et candem in unoquoque formam atque effigiem videmus, illa effigies in mente nostra insidens POST MUDTA, et posterius genita dicetur: veluti in illo quoque dicebamus, qui multa sigilla in cerá uno et eodem annulo impressa conspezerat. in Porphyr. Introduct. p. 29. b.

Aiyorlas

ages to be SPECIFICALLY ONE, amid Ch. IV.

you al de our rois quivous effices ris imionomeir ni ra afuxa, τὸ σῶμα σύμπαν κατόψεται συνδεαμεσῶν δὲ τοῖς ἐιξημένοις τῶν ασωμάτων έσιων, τό ωρωτον γέν@ φανείται κ, γενικώταδον κ, έτω μέν ΕΝ ΤΟΙΣ ΠΟΛΛΟΙΣ υφίς ηκε τὰ είδη κὶ τὰ γίνη. Καταλαδών δέ τις έκ τῶν κατὰ μές 🕒 ἀνθεώπων τὴν ἀυτῶν Φύσιν, τὴν ενθεωπότητα, έκ δὲ τῶν κατὰ μές 🕒 ἴππων ἀυτὴν τὴν ἰππότητα, κ, έτω τὸν καθόλυ ἄνθεωπον, κὸ, τὸν καθόλυ ἔππον ἐπινοήσας' κὸ, τὸ καθόλυ ζωον εκ των καθέκας α τῷ λόγῳ συναγαγών κὸ, τὸ καθόλυ αἰσθητικόν, κὶ τὸ καθόλυ ἔμψυχον, κὶ τὸ καθόλυ σώμα, κὶ τὴν καθολικωτάτην ἐσίας ἐξ ἀπάντως συλλογισάμες Θ, ὁ τοιθτος ἐν τῆ έαυτο διανοία τὰ γένη κ, τὰ είδη ἀθλως ὑπέςησεν ΕΠΙ ΤΟΙΣ ΠΟΛΛΟΙΣ, τετές, μετά τὰ ωολλά κὰ ὑς ηρογενώς. Genera verd et Species dicuntur esse ANTE MULTA, IN MULTIS, POST MULTA. Ut puta, intelligatur sigillum, quamlibet figuram habens, ex quo multæ ceræ ejusdem figuræ sint participes, et in medium aliquis has proferat, nequaquam praviso sigillo. Cum autem vidisset eas ceras in quibus figura exprimitur, et animadvertisset omnes eandem figuram participare. et quæ videbantur multæ, ratione in unum coegisset, hoc in mente teneat. Nempe sigillum dicitur esse species ANTE MULTA; illa vero in ceris, IN MULTIS; quæ vero ab iis desumitur, et in mente immaterialiter subsistit, POST MULTA. Sic igitur et Genera et Species ANTE MULTA in Creatore sunt, secundum rationes efficientes. In Deo enim rerum effectrices MAY we be allowed then to credit Ch. IV. those speculative Men, who tell us, "it

Ergo ipsas quamvis angusti terminus ævi
Excipiat; (neque enim plus septima ducitur ætas)
At Genus immortale manet——G. IV.

The same Immortality, that is, the Immortality of the Kind, may be seen in all perishable substances, whether animal or inanimate; for the individuals perish, the several Kinds still remain. And hence, if we take Time, as denoting the system of things temporary, we may collect the meaning of that passage in the Timaus, where the philosopher describe Time to be—μίνοντ ἀιῶν ἐν ἐν ἐν ἐν ἀς ἀριθμὸν ἔσαν ἀιῶν ον λικόνα. Æternitatis in uno permanentis Imaginem quandam, certis numerorum articulis progredientem. Plat. V. III. p. 37. Edit. Serran.

We have subjoined the following extract from Boethius, to serve as a commentary on this description of Time.—Æternitas igitur est, interminabilis vitæ tota simul et perfecta possessio. Quod ex collatione temporalium clarius liquet. Nam quidquid vivit in tempore, id præsens à præteritis in futura procedit: nihilque est in tempore ita constitutum, quod totum vitæ suæ spatium pariter possit amplecti; sed crastinum quidem nondum apprehendit, hesternum vero jam perdidit. In hodiernå quoque vita non amplius vivitis, quam in illo mobili transitorioque momento.

Quod

"fulness of his universal Intellection?" Ch. IV.

—If so, it will be proper that we invert
the Axiom before mentioned. We
must now say—Nil est in Sensu,
quod non prius fuit in Intellectu.
For the contrary may be true with
respect to Knowledge merely human,
yet never can it be true with respect to
C c 4

Know-

enim Deus conditis rebus antiquior videri debet temporis quantitate, sed simplicis potius proprietate natura. Hunc ENIM VITÆ IMMOBILIS PRÆSENTARIUM STATUM, INFINI-TUS ILLE TEMPORALIUM RERUM MOTUS IMITATUR; cumque eum effingere, atque æquare non possit, ex immobilitate deficit in motum; ex simplicitate præsentiæ decrescit in infinitam futuri ac præteriti quantitatem; et, cum totam pariter vitæ suæ plenitudinem nequeat possidere, hoc ipso, quòd aliquo modo nunquam esse desinit, illud, quod implere atque exprimere non potest, aliquatenus videtur amulari, alligans se ad qualemcunque præsentiam hujus exigui volucrisque momenti: que, quoniam MANENTIS ILLIUS PRESENTIE QUANDAM GESTAT IMAGIMEM, quibuscumque contigerit, id præstat, ut esse videantur. Quoniam vero manere non potuit, infinitum Temporis iter arripuit; eoque modo factum est, ut continuaret vitam eundo, cujus plenitudinem complecti non valuit PERMANENDO. Itaque, &c. De Consolat. Philosoph. L. V.

and awakened its dormant Powers, it Ch. IV. could at best have been nothing more, than a sort of dead Capacity; for IN-NATE IDEAS it could not possibly have any.

AT another time we hear of Bodies so exceedingly fine, that their very Exility makes them susceptible of sensation and knowledge; as if they shrunk into Intellect by their exquisite subtlety, which rendered them too delicate to be Bodies any longer. It is to this notion we owe many curious inventions, such as subtle Æther, animal Spirits, nervous Ducts, Vibrations, and the like; Terms, which MODERN PHILOSOPHY, upon parting with occult Qualities, has found expedient to provide itself, to supply their place.

But the intellectual Scheme, which never forgets Deity, postpones every thing corporeal to the primary mental Cause

In short ALL MINDS, that are, are Ch.IV. SIMILAR and CONGENIAL; and so too.

Principles or Causes of the more excellent; and though we estimit the common interpretations, and allow Sense to be a Principle of Science, we must, however, call it a Principle, not as if it was the efficient Cause, but as it rouses our Soul to the Recollecton of general Ideas—According to the same way of thinking is it said in the Timaus, that through the Sight and Hearing we acquire to ourselves Philosophy, because we pass from Objects of Sense to Reminiscence or Recollection.

And in another passage he observes—'Emild yae wauμος φοι αγαλμά ές ιι ή ψυχή, wailur των όιλων έχεσα λόγες, έςιθιζομίνη ὑνοὸ των αἰσθητων αναμιμνήσκεται ων ένδον έχει λόγων,
κ) τέτες ως ο Càλλεται. For in as much as the Soul, by containing the Principles of all beings, is a sort of omniform
Representation or Exemplar; when it is roused by
objects of Sense, it recollects those Principles, which it
contains within, and brings them forth.

Georgius Gemistus, otherwise called Pletho, writes upon the same subject in the following manner. Τὰν ψυχὴν φασὶν οἱ τὰ ἔιδη τιθέμενοι ἀναλαμζανεσαν ἔσγε ἐσιστάμην τὰς
ἔν τοῖς ἀισθητοῖς λόγες, ἀκειθές ερον ἀυτὰς ἔχοντας κỳ τελεώτερον
ἐν ἱαυτῆ ἴσχειν, ἡ ἐν τοῖς ἀισθηλοῖς ἔχεσι. Τὸ ἔν τελεώτερον τῶτο
κỳ ἀκειθίς ερον ἀκ ἀν ἀπὸ τῶν ἀισθητῶν ἴσχειν τὴν ψυχὴν, ὅγε μὴ
ἐς ἐν ἐν ἀυτοῖς. Οὐ δ' αν μηδαμε ἀλλόθι δν ἀυτὴν ἐξ ἀυτῆς διανοεῖσ-

(what is more important) between Man Ch. IV. and God.

For

here speaks, mean not only those relative Proportions of Equality and Inequality, which exist in Quantity, (such as double, sesquialter, &c.) but in a larger sense, they may be extended to mathematical Lines, Angles, Figures, &c. of all which Abyon or Proportions, tho' we possess in the Mind the most clear and precise Ideas, yet it may be justly questioned, whether any one of them ever existed in the sensible world.

To these two authors we may add Boethius, who, after having enumerated many acts of the MIND or INTELLECT, wholly distinct from Sensation, and independent of it, at length concludes,

Hac est efficiens magis,
Longè caussa potentior,
Quah qua materia modo
Impressas patitur notas.
Pracedit tamen excitans,
Ac vires animi movens,
Vivo in corpore passio.
Cùm vel lux oculos ferit,
Vel vox auribus instrepit;
Tum mentis vigor excitus,
Quas intus species tenet,
Ad motus simileis vocans,
Notis applicat exteris,
Introrsumque reconditis
Formis miscet imagines.

De Consolat. Philosoph. L. V.

The IV For what is Conversation between Man and Man?-It is a mutual intercourse of Speaking and Hearing .- To the Speaker, it is to teach; to the Hearer, it is to learn .- To the Speaker, it is to descend from Ideas to Words; to the Hearer, it is to ascend from Words to Ideas.-If the Hearer, in this ascent, can arrive at no Ideas, then is he said not to understand; if he ascend to Ideas dissimilar and heterogeneous, then is he said to misunderstand.-What then is requisite, that he may be said to understand?-That he should ascend to certain Ideas, treasured up within himself, correspondent and similar to those zithin the Speaker. The same may be said of a Writer and a Reader; as when any one reads to-day or to-morrow, or here or in Italy, what Euclid wrote in Greece two thousand years ago.

> Now is it not marvellous, there should be so cract an Identity of our Ideas, if they were only generated from sensible Objects,



Objects, infinite in number, ever chang- Ch. IV. ing, distant in Time, distant in Place, and no one Particular the same with any other?

AGAIN, do we allow it possible for God to signify his will to Men; or for MEN to signify their wants to God?-In both these cases there must be an Identity of Ideas, or else nothing is done either one way or the other. Whence then do these COMMON IDENTIC IDEAS. come?-Those of Men, it seems, come all from Sensation. And whence come God's Ideas?-Not surely from Sensation too; for this we can hardly venture to affirm, without giving to Body that notable Precedence of being prior to the Intellection of even God himself .- Let them then be original; let them be connate, and essential to the divine Mind .- If this be true, is it not a fortunate Event, that Ideas of corporeal rise, and others of mental, (things derived from subjects

from Body, which we cannot discover to have any Ideas at all? (!)—An Examination of this kind, pursued with accuracy and temper, is the most probable method of solving these doubts. It is thus we shall be enabled with more assurance to decide, whether we are to admit the Doctrine of the Epicurean Poet,

CORPOREA NATURA animum constare, animamque;

or trust the Mantuan Bard, when he sings in divine numbers,

Igneus est ollis vigor, et CELESTIS

Seminibus.

.But

⁽¹⁾ NOTH 32 edit EAMA yerra was yze at ta ANOHTA NOTH yerraco; No Body produces Mind: for how should Things devoid of Mind produce Mind? Sallust do Diis et Mundo, c. 8.

CHAP. V.

Subordination of Intelligence—Difference of Ideas, both in particular Men, and in whole Nations—Different Genius of different Languages—Character of the English, the Oriental, the Latin, and the Greek Languages—Superlative Excellence of the Last—Conclusion.

ORIGINAL TRUTH (a), having the Ch. V. most intimate connection with the supreme

⁽a) Those Philosophers, whose Ideas of Being and Knowledge are derived from Body and Sensation, have a short method to explain the Nature of TRUTH. It is a factitious thing, made by every man for himself; which comes and goes, just as it is remembered and forgot; which in the order of things makes its appearance the last of any, being not only subsequent to sensible Objects, but even to our Sensations of them. According to this Hypothesis, there are many Truths, which have been, and are no longer; others, that will be, and have not

only particular Percipients. Among these therefore we must look for ignorance and errour, and for that Subordination of Intelligence, which is their natural consequence.

Ch. V.

WE have daily experience in the Works of ART, that a partial Knowledge will suffice for Contemplation, tho' we know not enough, to profess ourselves Artists. Much more is this true, with respect to NATURE; and well for man-Dd3 kind

man Soul in the light of a Crucible, where Truths are produced by a kind of logical Chemistry. They may consist (for aught we know) of natural materials, but are as much creatures of our own, as a Bolus or Elixir.

If Milton by his URANIA intended to represent TRUTH, he certainly referred her to a much more anticnt, as well as a far more noble origin.

Heav'nly born!

Before the hills appear'd, or fountains flow'd,
Thou with eternal Wisdom didst converse,
Wisdom thy Sister; and with her didst play
In presence of th' almighty Futher, pleas'd
With thy celestial Song.—— P. I.. VII.
See Proverbs VIII. 22, &c. Jeremiah X. 10. Marc.
Antonin. IX. 1.

and that of VIRTUE appear to co-incide, it being the business of both to examine our Ideas, and to amend them by the Standard of Nature and of Truth (b).

In this important Work, we shall be led to observe, how Nations, like single Men, have their peculiar Ideas; how these peculiar Ideas become THE GENIUS OF THEIR LANGUAGE, since the Symbol must of course correspond to its Archetype (c); how the wisest NaDd4 tions

⁽b) How useful to ETHIC SCIENCE, and indeed to Knowledge in general, a GRAMMATICAL DISQUISITION into the Etymology and Meaning of Words was esteemed by the chief and ablest Philosophers, may be seen by consulting Plato in his Cratylus; Xenoph. Mem. IV. 5, 6. Arrian. Epict. I. 17. II. 10. Marc. Anton. III. 11. V. 8. X. 8.

⁽c) HΘΟΥΣ ΧΑΡΑΚΤΗΡ ές, τ' ανθρώπε ΑΟΓΟΣ. Stob. Capiuntur Signa haud levia, sed observatu digna (quod fortasse quispiam non putarit) de ingeniis et moribus populorum et nationum ex linguis ipsorum. Bacon. de Augm. Scient. VI. 1. Vid. etiam. Quintil. L. XI. p. 675. Edit. Capperon. Diog. L. I. p. 58. et Menag. Com. Tusc. Disp. V. 16.

Elegance, we gain in Copiousness, in which last respect few Languages will be found superior to our own.

LET us pass from ourselves to the NATIONS OF THE EAST. The (d) Eastern World, from the earliest days, has been at all times the Seat of enormous Monarchy. On its natives fair Liberty never shed its genial influence. If at any time civil Discords arose among them (and arise there did innumerable) the contest was never about the Form of their Government; for this was an object, of which the Combatants had no conception;) it was all from the poor motive of, who should be their MASTER, whether

⁽d) Dià yàg tò δυλικώτεροι είναι τὰ ήθη ὁι μεν Βάς Εαροι τῶν 'Γλλήν ων, ὁι δὶ আερὶ τὴν Ασίαν τῶν আερὶ τὴν Ευςώπην, ὑπομένεσι τὴν δισποτικὴν ἀςκὴν, ὑδὶν δυσκεςαίνοντες. For the Barbarians by being more slavish in their Manners than the Greeks, and those of Asia than those of Europe, submit to despotic Government without murmuring or discontent. Arist. Polit. III. 4.

nerated into the Tumid and Bombast. The Greeks too of Asia became infected by their neighbours, who were often at times not only their neighbours, but their masters; and hence that Luxuriance of the Asiatic Stile, unknown to the chaste eloquence and purity of Athens. But of the Greeks we forbear to speak now, as we shall speak of them more fully, when we have first considered the Nature or Genius of the Romans.

AND what sort of People may we pronounce the Romans?—A Nation engaged in wars and commotions, some foreign, some domestic, which for seven hundred years wholly engrossed their thoughts. Hence therefore their Language to things political, and well adapted to the purposes both of History and popular Eloquence.—But what was their Philosophy?—As a Nation, it was none, if we may credit their ablest Writers. And hence the Unfitness of their Language to this Subject;

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gil seems to have judged the most truly of his Countrymen, when admitting their inferiority in the more elegant Arts he concludes at last with his usual majesty,

Tu

Nec me animi fallit, Graiorum obscura reperta
Difficile inlustrare Latinis versibus esse,
(Multa novis rebus præsertim quom sit agendum,)
Propter egestatem linguæ et rerum novitatem:
Sed tua me virtus tamen, et sperata voluptas
Suavis amicitæ quemvis perferre laborem &
Suadet—— Lucr. I. 137.

In the same age, Varro, among his numerous works, wrote some in the way of *Philosophy*; as did the Patriot Brutus, a Treatise concerning Virtue, much applauded by Cicero; but these Works are now lost.

Soon after the writers above mentioned came Ho-RACE, some of whose satires and epistles may be justly ranked amongst the most valuable pieces of Latin Philosophy, whether we consider the purity of their Stile, or the great Address with which they treat the Subject.

After Horace, tho' with as long an interval as from the days of Augustus to those of Nero, came the Satirist Persius, the friend and disciple of the Stoic Cornutus; to whose precepts as he did honour by his virtuous Life,

From considering the Romans, let us Ch. V. pass to the greeks. The Grecian COMMONWEALTHS, while they maintained

Honorius and Theodosius) but from his near resemblance. in the character of a Writer. His works, like the other's, are miscellaneous; filled with Mythology and antient Literature, some Philosophy being intermixed. His Commentary upon the Somnium Scipionis of Cicero may be considered as wholly of the philosophical kind.

In the same age with Aulus Gellius, flourished Apv-LEIUS of Madaura in Africa, a Platonic Writer, whose Matter in general far exceeds his perplexed and affected Stile, too conformable to the false Rhetoric of the Age when he lived.

Of the same Country, but of a later Age, and a harsher Stile, was MARTIANUS CAPELLA, if indeed he deserve not the name rather of a Philologist, than of a Philosopher.

After Capella, we may rank CHALCIDIUS the Platonic, tho' both his Age, and Country, and Religion are doubtful. His manner of writing is rather more agreeable than that of the two preceding, nor does he appear to be their inferior in the knowledge of Philosophy, his work being a laudable Commentary upon the Timaus of Plato.

The

They were the politest, the bravest, and the wisest of men. In the short space of little more than a Century, they became such Statesmen, Warriors, Orators, Historians, Physicians, Poets, Critics, Painters, Sculptors, Architects, and (last of all) Philosophers, that one can hardly help considering THAT GOLDEN PERIOD, as a Providential Event in honour of human Nature, to shew to what perfection the Species might ascend(g).

Now

(a) If we except Homer, Hesiod, and the Lyric Poets, we hear of few Grecian Writers before the expedition of Xerxes. After that Monarch had been defeated, and the dread of the Persian power was at an end, the Effulgence of Grecian Genius (if I may use the expression) broke forth, and shone till the time of Alexander the Macedonian, after whom it disappeared, and never rose again. This is that Golden Period spoken of above. I do not mean that Greece had not many writers of great merit subsequent to that period, and especially of the philosophic kind; but the Great, the Striking, the Sublime (call it as you please) attained at that time to a height, to which it never could ascend in any after age.

and universal Genius. Where Matter Ch. V. so abounded, Words followed of course,

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and

ponnesian War, which together with other wars, its immediate consequence, broke the confederacy of their Commonwealths; wasted their strength; made them jealous of each other; and thus paved a way for the contemptible kingdom of Macedon to enslave them all, and ascend in a few years to universal Monarchy.

A like luxuriance of prosperity sowed discord among the Romans; raised those unhappy contests between the Senate and the Gracchi; between Sylla and Marius; between Pompey and Casar; till at length, after the last struggle for Liberty by those brave Patriots Brutus and Cassius at Philippi, and the subsequent defeat of Anthony at Actium, the Romans became subject to the dominion of a Fellow-Citizen.

It must indeed be confessed, that after Alexander and Octavius had established their Monarchies, there were many bright Geniuses, who were eminent under their Government. Aristotle maintained a friendship and epistolary correspondence with Alexander. In the time of the same Monarch lived Theophraitus, and the Cynic Diogenes. Then also Demosthenes and Æschines spoke their two celebrated Orations. So likewise in the time of Octavius, Virgil wrote his Æneid, and with Horace, Varius,

Ch. V.

Mimnermus or Sappho; for the rural lays of a Theocritus or Bion; and for the sublime Conceptions of a Sophocles or Homer. The same in Prose. Here Isocrates was enabled to display his Art, in all the accuracy of Periods, and the nice counterpoise of Diction. Here Demosthenes found materials for that nervous Composition, that manly force of unaffected Eloquence, which rushed, like a torrent, too impetuous to be withstood.

Who were more different in exhibiting their Philosophy, than Xenophon, Plato, and his disciple, Aristotle? Different, I say, in their character of Composition; for as to their Philosophy itself, it was in reality the same. Aristotle, strict, methodic, and orderly; subtle in Thought; sparing in Ornament; with little address to the Passions or Imagination; but exhibiting the whole with such a pregnant brevity, that in every sentence Works with Tales and Fables, and the ch. v. mystic Theology of antient times. Xenophon, the Pattern of perfect simplicity; every where smooth, harmonious, and pure; declining the figurative, the marvellous, and the mystic; ascending but rarely into the Sublime; nor then so much trusting to the colours of stile, as to the intrinsic dignity of the Sentiment itself.

THE Language in the mean time, in which He and Plato wrote, appears to suit so accurately with the Stile of both, that when we read either of the two, we cannot help thinking, that it is he alone, who has hit its character, and that it could not have appeared so elegant in any other manner.

AND thus is THE GREEK TONGUE, from its propriety and universality, made for all that is great, and all that is beau-E e 4 tiful, pleasure, and more rarely still, any solid Ch. V. improvement.

To be competently skilled in antient learning, is by no means a work of such insuperable pains. The very progress itself is attended with delight, and resembles a Journey through some pleasant Country, where every mile we advance, new charms arise. It is certainly as easy to be a Scholar, as a Gamester, or many other Characters equally illiberal and low. The same application, the same quantity of habit will fit us for one, as completely as for the other. And as to those who tell us, with an air of seeming wisdom, that it is Men, and not Books, we must study to become knowing; this I have always remarked, from repeated Experience, to be the common consolation and language of Dunces. They shelter their ignorance under a few bright Exam-

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BOOK THE THIRD.

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RAL IDEAS; how we acquire them; hence they are derived; what is their Nature; and what their connection with Language. So much likewise as to the Subject of this Treatise, UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR.

END OF THE THIRD BOOK.

AD-

ADVERTISEMENT,

THE following Notes are either Translations of former Notes, or Additions to them. The additional are chiefly Extracts from Greek Manuscripts, which (as the Author has said already concerning others of the same kind) are valuable both for their Rarity, and for their intrinsic Merit.

ADDITIONAL NOTES.

PAG. 95.—To Stop, &c.] The Quotation from Proclus in the Note may be thus rendered—THAT THING IS AT REST, which for a time prior and sussequent is in the same place, both itself and its Parts.

P. 105. In the Note, for yeroperor read yeroperor, and render the passage thus—For by this faculty (namely the faculty of Sense) we neither know the Future, nor the Past, but the Present only.

P. 106. Note (d). The passage of Philoponus, here referred to, but by mistake omitted, has respect to the notion of beings corporeal and sensible, which were said to be nearly approaching to Non-Entitys. The Author explains this, among other reasons, by the following-Πως δε τοις μη έσι γειτνιάζει; Πρώτον μεν, επειδή ενταύθα τὸ σαςελθόν ές: κὰ τὸ μέλλον, ταῦτα δὲ μὰ ὅντα τὸ μὲν γὰς ἀΦά-માડ્યા મે, હમ हिरा हेट्रो, मठे ठेहे संसर्ध हेट्रा συμπαξαθέει δε मध् χεόνο मळे Ούσικα σάτλα, μάλλοι δὶ τῆς κινήσεως ἀυτών σαρακολύθημά εςε & years. How therefore is it that they approach nearly to Non-Entitys? In the first place, because HERE (where they exist) exists the Past and the Future, and these are Non-Entitys; for the one is vanished, and is no more, the other is not as yet. Now all natural Substances pass away along with TIME, of rather it is upon their Motion that TIME is an Attendant. P. 119.

Additional NOTES.

P. 204.—Note (c)—There are in the number of things many, which have a most known Existence, but a most unknown Emerce; such for example as Motion, Place, and more than either of them, Time. The Existence of each of these is known and indisputable, but what their Essence is, or Nature, is among the most difficult things to discern. The Soul also is in the same Class: that it is something, is most evident; but what it is, is a matter not so easy to learn. Alex. Approd. p. 142.

P. 340—LANGUAGE—INCAPABLE OF COMMUNICATING DEMONSTRATION.] See Three Treatises, or Vol. I. p. 220, and the additional note to the words, *The Source of infinite Truths*, &c.

P. 368—in the Note—yet so held the Philosopher of Malmesbury, and the Author of the Essay, &c.]

Philoponus, from the Philosophy of Plato and Pythagoras, seems to have far excelled these Moderns in his account of Wisdom or Philosophy, and its Altributes, or essential Characters.— Idion yae pilosopias to in tois wollois in his wollois in the diapoean differ the nonvarian, it is in tois wollois in the convarian duxantin diapoean difference in the proper business of Philosophy to shew in many things, which have Difference, what is their Common Character; and in many things, which have a Common Character; theo' what it street difference. It is indeed no difficult.

If therefore we are to relate concisely the Cause, why THE HYPOTHESIS OF IDEAS pleased them (namely Parmenides, Zeno, Socrates, &c.) we must begin by observing that all the various visible objects around us, the heavenly as well as the sublunary, are either from CHANCE, or according to a Cause. From Chance is impossible; for then the more excellent things (such as Mind, and Reason, and Cause, and the Effects of Cause) will be among those things that come last, and so the Endings of things will be more excellent than their BEGINNINGS. To which too may be added what, Aristotle says; that ESSENTIAL CAUSES OUGHT TO BE PRIOR TO ACCIDENTAL, in as much as EVE-RY ACCIDENTAL CAUSE IS A DEVIATION FROM THEM; 80 that whatever is the effect of such essential Cause [as is indeed every work of Art and human Ingenuity | must needs be prior to that which is the Effect of Chance, even though we were to refer to Chance the most divine of risible objects [the heavens themselves].

The Philosopher, having thus proved a definite Cause of the World in opposition to Chance, proceeds to shew that from the Unity and concurrent Order of things this Cause must be One. After which he goes on as follows.——

[—] EI μὶν ἐν ἄλογον τὰτο, ἄτοπον ἔςαι γάς τι πάλιν τῶν ὑστίςων τῆς τέτων ἀιτίας κςιῖτῖον, τὸ κατὰ λόγον κὰ γνῶσιν ποιὰν, ἔισω τὰ Παντὸς ὁν, κὰ τὰ "Ολε μίςος, ὅ ἐστιν ἀπ' ἀιτίας ἀλόγε τωῦ τοιᾶτο. ἘΙ δὶ λόγον ἔχον, κὰ ἀυτὸ γινῶσκον, οἴδιν ἱαυτὸ δήπε τῶν πάντων ἄιτιον ὸν, ἡ τὰτο ἀγνοῦν, ἀγνοήσει τὴν ἱαυτὰ Φύσιν. ἘΙ δὶ δίδιν, ὅτι κατ' ἐσίαν ἔστὶ τὰ παίδις ἄινιον, τὸ δὶ ὡςισμίνως ἐιΕ f 2

ADDITIONAL NOTES.

those mundane Reasons and Forms, out of which the Universe is composed, and that the Universe is in it, as in a Cause, distinct from and without the Matter.

P. 380-AGREEABLE TO WHICH IDEAS THESE WORKS ARE FASHIONED, &c.] It is upon these Principles that Nicomachus in his Arithmetic, p. 7, calls the Supreme Bcing an Artist—in The TE TEXTITE GET diamia, in Dei artificis mente. Where Philoponus, in his manuscript Comment, Observes as follows—τεχνίτην φησί τον Θιον, ώς πάνθων τάς ερώτας αιτίας κή τυς λόγυς αυτών Τχοντα. He calls God an ARTIST, as possessing within himself the first Causes of all things, and their Reasons or Proportions. Soon after speaking of those Sketches, after which Painters work and finish their Pictures, he subjoins - source in huis, είς τὰ τοιαύτα σκιαγραφήματα βλέποιλες, ωριύμεν τόδε τι, έτω મો ο δημιμργός, πρός έχεινα αποδλέπων, τα τηδε πάνθα κεκόσμηκεν' αλλ' ίς ίου, ότι τὰ μέν τηδε σκιαγραφήματα άτελη εισιν, έκεινοι δε οι εν τω Θεω λόγοι αξχέτυποι κές απθέλειος εισιν. Ας therefore we, looking upon such Sketches as these, make such and such particular things, so also the Creator, looking at those Sketches of his; hath formed and adorned with beauty all things here below. We must remember, however, that the Sketches here are imperfect; but that the others, those REASONS or Proportions, which exist in God, ere Archetypal and all-perfect.

It is according to this Philosophy, that Millon represents God, after he had created this visible World, contemplating

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reasoning you may perceive to be true in all things what's ever, which operate merely by existing. It follows therefore, THAT THE CAUSE OF THE UNIVERSE, operating after this manner, is that primarily, which the World is SECONDARILY. If therefore the World be the plenitude of Forms of all Sorts, these Forms must also be prima-RILY IN THE CAUSE OF THE WORLD, for it was the same Cause, which constituted the Sun, and the Moon, and Man, and Horse, and in general all the Forms existing in the Universe. These therefore exist primarily in the Cause of the Universe; another Sun besides the apparent, another Man, and so with respect to every Form else. The Forms therefore, previous to the sensible and external Forms, and which according to this reasoning are their ACTIVE and EFFICIENT CAUSES, are to be found PRE-EX-ISTING IN THAT ONE AND COMMON CAUSE OF ALL THE Procli Com. MS, in Plat. Parmenid. UNIVERSE. L. 3.

We have quoted the above passages for the same reason as the former; for the sake of those, who may have a curiosity to see a sample of this antient Philosophy, which (as some have held) may be traced up from Plato and Socrates to Parmenides, Pythagoras, and Orpheus himself.

If the Phrase, to operate mercly by existing, should appear questionable, it must be explained upon a supposition, that in the Supreme Being no Attributes are secondary, intermittent, or adventitious, but all original, ever perfect and essential. See p. 162, 359.

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ADDITIONAL NOTES.

The Verses of Orpheus on this subject may be found in the trace De Mundo, secribed to Aristotle, p. 23. Edit. Sylburg.

Zeus deser yireto, Zeus x. 7. A.

P. 391.—Where all things lie inveloped, &c.]

— σσα τείς ές: ΤΑ ΠΟΛΛΑ κατὰ δά τινα μιςισμές, τοσαύτα κ) ΤΟ ΕΝ ἐκιῖνο τες τε μιςισμέ κατὰ τὸ τιάνη άμις είς ἐ γὰς είν, ὡς ἐλάχιςον, καθάτες ὁ Σπεύσιττος ίδοξε λίγειν ὰλλ' ΕΝ ΩΣ ΠΑΝΤΑ. As mumerous as is the Multitude of Individuals by Partition, so numerous also is that Principle of Unity by universal Impartibility. For it is not One, as a minimum is one (according to what Spencippus seemed to say,) but it is One, as being alk things. Damascius τες 'Λεχών, MS.

P. 408—THE WISEST NATIONS—THE MOST COPIOUS LANGUAGES.] It is well observed by Murctus—Nulli unquam, qui res ignorarent, nomina, quibus eas exprimerent, quasierunt. Var. Lect. VI. 1.

P. 411—But what was their Philosophy?] The same Muretus has the following passage upon the Roman Taste for Philosophy.—Beati autem illi, et opulenti, et omnium gentium victores Romani, in petendia honoribus, et in prensandis civibus, et in exteris nationibus verbo componendis, re compilandis occupati, philosophandi curam servis aut libertis suis, et Graculis esurientibus relinquebant. Ipsi, quod ab avaritia, quod ab ambitione,

quod

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FINIS.

Wright, Printer, St. John's Square. Clerkenweil.

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